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EDITORIAL.

Auf den Bergen.

"Auf die Berge lass uns steigen,—let us clamber up the mountains", sings Heine at the outset of his "Travel Pictures"; and at this season most European professors in India have taken the poet's advice, shaken the dust of the plains off their feet and clambered up to a cooler climate above the clouds. Now-a-days one hears so much said against exoduses and such like by people who have never tried a change of climate, that a word or two might perhaps fitly be said in their favour. To begin with, the change is absolutely necessary for a European if he is to remain in a condition to give his best work to the country of his adoption. The annual freshening and bracing tonic of mountain air gives new life and new activity to the teacher; mind and body are alike strengthened and built up. His vacation reading and writing run easier and quicker than in the swelter of the plains. He renews once more his acquaintance with works of nature that are not sources of discomfort and may be sources of delight; the

blue of distant mountain ranges, the rich red of the baking plains six thousand feet below, green spots of distant rice fields and the silver serpent-trail of some far-winding river, framed in with cliffs and mountains and sholas, give beauty to the eyes and pleasure to the mind. Rowing and tennis, mountain climbing and long walks over the green billowy hills, bring one back for a time the strength of body left behind in Britain and brace one for the work of the coming year.

Cambridge Arts Diploma.

Many old Cambridge men have been astonished at the energy which that University has been showing in recent years in the matter of University Extension, especially in the holding of examinations for those who are not members of the University. A few years ago Diplomas in Public Health and in Agriculture came into being, and now we find that the Syndicate on a Diploma for External Students has reported in favour of a Diploma in Arts to be obtained after three examinations, a Little-Go, a General, and a Special. It is hoped that the study of literary subjects will be encouraged by the new diploma and the letters D. A. (Camb.) which its proud possessor will append to his name. The proposal is supported by Drs. Butler, Jebb, and Keynes, and opposed by Prof. Ridgeway, Mr. Whibley and Dr. Mayo, but nothing has been settled yet.

The most distressful country.

In addition to the vexed question of a Roman Catholic University, Ireland has two very serious educational troubles on hand. One of these is the scandalous neglect of scientific and technical education on the part of the Irish Government. The Royal College of Science, Dublin, has been in existence for over twenty years, and has not yet been given buildings and appliances to enable it to carry out even its original programme. The Professor of Practical Engineering, destitute of instruments, is employed in teaching—Geometrical Drawing! The Kevin Street Technical Schools are so overcrowded, thanks to some extent to their giving instruction of a primary nature, such as arithmetic and writing, that new buildings are urgently needed, but money is not forthcoming owing to the fact that savings from grants are not legally available for expenditure on lands or buildings. There is some hope that after the establishment of the new *Board of Agriculture and of Industries*, technical

education may be set on a sound basis in a year or so. We wish we could say the same for Indian technical education, but we have not yet got our *Board of Agriculture and of Industries.*

Primary Teachers, however, have a still bigger crow to pluck with the Irish authorities. It appears that some £100,000 of arrears of fee-grant due to the teachers are still in the Treasury, while protracted negotiations over a pension scheme are in progress. The Executive Committee of the teachers was empowered to represent the whole body, and agreed to accept a new pension scheme, only a part of the provisions of which it knew, provided that the arrears of the fee-grant were paid. When, however, the whole pension scheme was laid bare, the terms were found so much more unfavourable to the teachers than was expected, that they and their Executive Committee alike repudiated them. Affairs are now at a deadlock.

A Commercial University.

Leipzig, the intellectual and commercial capital of Saxony, has recently led the way in the establishment of a Commercial University, where business men are to acquire the highest possible training in subjects of special use them, and also the letters Ph.D. after their names. The new University will be to the *Real Gymnasium* or Modern High School what the ordinary University is to the *Gymnasium* or Classical High School. It will, like other German Universities, be open to foreigners who can prove that they have come up to the necessary standard of preliminary study. Although the new institution is to be independent of the time-honoured University of Leipzig, professors of the old University and masters of the Leipzig Commercial School will take their share in the instruction. The Saxon Government, Leipzig University, and the Leipzig Chamber of Commerce are responsible for the new venture. The idea seems a good one, and we only regret that it has not been found possible to incorporate the new institution with the old University. Two Universities in one town is a large order even in Germany.

A Prize Day Abuse.

We notice in a London educational paper an advertisement from a gentleman who calls himself among other things a "Coach for Prize-Day Speeches". Now, as presumably a Prize-day speech is meant to ive parents an idea of the ordinary elocutionary resources of a

school, the employment of a special Prize-Day Speech Coach seems to be little better than a fraud, practised, we are told, by "some of the largest schools in London", and yet educational frauds are the most shameless and least excusable of all.

EDUCATION IN THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY, 1892-1897.

The Quinquennial Report of the Madras Educational Department for 1892-1897, when conjoined with the Annual Report for the year 1896-7, constitutes a formidable volume full of detailed information and carefully compiled statistics, which must have taken up a large amount of time in the mere compilation. Looking through such a book one cannot help feeling that the system of writing elaborate reports must be a serious clog upon departmental machinery, and that the time taken up in compiling statistics would be much better spent in thinking out schemes for improving educational institutions and economising educational resources. As long, however, as the higher powers refuse to recognise the danger of turning departments into statistical bureaus and reports into statistical journals we presume our Commissioners, Directors and Collectors will have to reconcile themselves to becoming more and more statisticians and less and less administrators, till at last the strong towers of government crumble down in a vast fetid swamp of putrifying figures. We trust, however, that before this mournful spectacle presents itself the Supreme and Local Governments will set a limit to the facts and figures needed in reports, and thus at once emancipate officials and enlighten the public from the drudgery and stupefaction to which respectively the usual Department Report consign them. Heads of Departments have of course to compile the size of report wanted by Government, and as the work of the Department increases with time, the Report grows bigger and bigger, unwieldier and yet unwieldier, till at last the facts are lost in a cloud of figures. So far this result has not yet happened in Educational Reports, thanks to the prodigious pains taken in dividing and subdividing, but the danger is ever growing more menacing and more

serious. With these preliminary remarks, we may turn to the Report of one of the hardest working and most progressive Departments of the Madras Government.

During the five years under review there has been a steady rise in the *number* of educational institutions, from over 23,000 to nearly 27,000, and of pupils from nearly 694,000 to nearly 823,000, while the proportion of scholars to population of school-going age has risen from 13· to 15·4 per cent. European girls and boys seem to take the greatest advantage of education, then Brahmin and Native Christian boys.

Expenditure on education rose from nearly 59 lakhs to nearly 67 lakhs, 22 per cent. of the increase being met from public funds, and 28 per cent. from fees. Of the increased expenditure some Rs. 80,000 went to Professional Colleges, nearly 3 lakhs to Secondary, and about the same to Primary Schools. While the cost of educating a student at a Government College has slightly fallen, it has risen in Board and Aided Colleges, but it still costs Rs. 290 to educate a student for one year at a Government College, of which sum the student pays some Rs. 78. Non-Government Colleges, in spite of their long hours, big classes, small salaries and bad accommodation have not been able to screw down the cost below Rs. 152,—nearly double what it was five years ago,— of which the student pays some Rs. 49 in an Aided, or Rs. 73 in a Board College. As every student costs the country a sum varying from Rs. 79 to Rs. 212 per annum, we trust he will do his best in his subsequent career to justify the expenditure.

The amount given as *Grants-in-Aid* from Provincial Funds has been practically stationary at a little over 6 lakhs, but a steadily increasing proportion has been allotted to institutions under private management, at the expense of those under Local Boards, some of which have been taken over by Government. Grants-in-Aid from Local and Municipal Funds have slightly increased, the former amounting to Rs. 2,39,000 and the latter to Rs. 1,07,000 in round numbers. The Director alludes to the "assignment" system of giving grants as having acted as a stimulus to schools in backward districts, but not having pleased the managers of well-attended institutions which have not obtained as much as they would have hoped for.

Under *Controlling Agencies* the Director draws attention to the good work done by the 255 Inspecting Schoolmasters, whose chief work is to tour among out-of-the-way villages, start schools where none exist, and bring unaided schools into the aided ranks. During the year 1896-7, over 2,500 new schools were started, and over 2,600 unaided schools were brought to conform to the grant-in-aid code. As, however, only 157 of these Inspecting Schoolmasters are trained men, and only 16 have passed the F.A. Examination, their qualifications must in most cases be low enough. We hope that the efforts made in 1891 to secure them better prospects by paying them from Provincial Funds and at a higher rate will not be in vain, and that the earliest opportunity may be taken to give those men a fair wage for their work, and gradually to attract men of higher qualifications into this important branch of inspection work.

With reference to *Collegiate Education*, we note that the Director recognises the growth of the feeling in favour of closer relations between the University and the "affiliated" colleges. Under University Examinations we remark a steady increase in the number of candidates for the M.A., the B.L., and the L.T., degrees : the number of passes, however, is very disappointing in the M.A. examination, and seems to show that men often appear without due preparation or the requisite abilities. A stricter standard is, we are glad to see, being adopted in the English F.A. and B.A. papers : we only wish we could say the same for the Second Language paper. In the last B.A. examinations, it is interesting to note that the Native Christians and Non-Brahmin Hindus seem to have beaten the Brahmins, especially in English, though the Brahmins are slightly ahead in the Science division. It is also worthy of mention that over five-sixths of the candidates for the B.A. examination take three years or more to get the degree after passing the F.A. But perhaps the most important feature of this portion of the Report is the warning which the Director gives to aided first-grade colleges, some of which appear to have lowered their fees in order to attract students, while relying on Government grants "*to recoup a loss of fee income deliberately incurred.*" "*It is certainly open to question,*" the Director continues, "*if, in view of the pressing claims on its resources, Government is justified in helping those who refuse to help themselves.*" We trust that this warning will not be thrown away. Referring to *Oriental Langu-*

ages, the Report holds out the hope that a few oriental colleges may arise in the event of the University deciding to establish an oriental side.

During the five years under review the number of Arts students in the University has steadily declined from 3,800 to 3,500, but we trust that the diminution in numbers may have been compensated for by an improvement in quality.

Coming to *Professional and Training Colleges* we find that some four lakhs of rupees have been expended on buildings for that all-devouring institution, the *Law College*. Considering the amount of money which this college takes from its unfortunate students, and the small amount of good which, according to all accounts, they derive from it, we must say we would rather have seen a more modest expenditure on its buildings: but the Law College is a sore subject to all parties. We are sorry to see that the number of students in the *Medical College* has steadily declined, owing perhaps to the raising of the standard of admission to the medical course. The college needs an additional professor, who, we hope, will be forthcoming, and whose salary might surely be easily met if the Medical Department bore its fair share of the salaries of the professors who devote only a portion of their time to the college. As this college is certainly one of the most important institutions in the Presidency, we trust that every effort will be made to strengthen and improve it. The *Engineering College* has risen slightly in numbers during the last five years, from 61 to 76, chiefly in the Engineer class, which is a good sign. The bulk of the students, however, still flow through the Engineer Subordinate class into the lower ranks of Government employ. This is a dismal comment on the talk about technical education. The two *Training Colleges for Teachers* are practically stationary, as far as a numbers go, but they seem to be improving in efficiency. The *Agricultural College* is also practically stationary in numbers, though it has achieved a good reputation throughout India. It seems, however, to be used mainly as a means for obtaining promotion in the Revenue Department. This is not as it should be. Surely, if Government is in earnest about agricultural improvements, it might copy the example of the English County Councils and send round itinerant lecturers on agriculture, planting, and dairy farming, and establish local training schools and exhibitions in connection with the Agricultural College. In a country like

India, gifted with so many valuable herbs and plants, and such variety of soil and climate, it would surely be well worth while to take some practical measures to improve the production of the country, and to provide the necessary money for so doing.

Turning to *Secondary Education* it is gratifying to note that though the number of schools has slightly diminished, from 136 to 133, the number of pupils has increased by 45 per cent, in the last five years. The great diminution in the number of students in secondary as compared with primary schools is regarded as an indication of the need of more secondary schools, for which, however, the Department has no funds. The results of the Upper Secondary Examination scarcely seem to justify its continuance, but an improvement is expected by reason of the assimilation of its standard with that of the Matriculation. The expenditure on secondary education has slightly increased, from Rs. 5,80,000 to Rs. 5,90,000 and has been met almost entirely from fees and endowments. The contributions from Provincial and Local Funds have slightly declined, and this desirable movement might be easily enough expedited by a gradual rise in High School fees. There has been a steady rise in the number of certificated teachers during the five years, the increase being that of 32 per cent. This is a good sign.

With regard to *Primary Education* we fear that a very serious risk is being overlooked, namely, the danger of overwork and over-examination of young children in order to win results' grants for their teachers. We fail to see the wisdom of public examinations for the unfortunate children of the Infant, First, Second and Third Standards, and we fear that the Educational authorities are undertaking a very serious responsibility in allowing bright little lads to be worked up for public examinations in the mercenary interest of their schools. We trust that this very risky system, which has done an enormous amount of mischief in a quiet way in Europe, by permanently injuring the mental powers of promising lads, will do less harm in India, but we should not be at all surprised to learn that over-examination in early youth is largely responsible for that want of mental elasticity which is so often complained of in Indian students of more advanced years. We would go so far as to say that we would gladly see a rule introduced prohibiting children under fifteen years of age from going in for any public examination, and making the reputation and income of schools depend on

frequent and surprise inspections rather than the painfully-earned percentages of 154,634 unfortunate little children. The whole system too is discredited by the want of uniformity in the examination standards adopted by the thirty different Boards engaged in this dismal business.

During the five years under review there has been an increase of 17 per cent. in the number of boys in primary schools. This is satisfactory as far as it goes; but there are still nearly three-fourths of the boys of school-going age without the educational pale, 90 per cent. of the villages with a population of less than 200 without schools, and some 50 per cent. of those with over 200 inhabitants equally schoolless. Again, the pay and qualifications of primary teachers are notoriously low. Much therefore remains to be done, and it is not easy to see whence the necessary money will come.

In the chapter on *Special Education,* we naturally turn to *Technical, Industrial or Art Schools,* to see how far industrial education has been encouraged. Here, however, the classification adopted seems by no means satisfactory, for we find commercial schools, drawing schools and music schools intermixed with schools teaching weaving and cabinet-making. In the Appendices things are even worse, owing to the absence of totals for the different classes of schools dealt with, and the inclusion of teachers' training schools and schools of medicine. We are, however, most grateful for Appendix M., which is perhaps the most valuable in the Report, and shows first, the local industries of each district, and secondly, the subjects taught and the classes of students in the local "technical" schools. The want of due distinction in this section between industrial schools proper and commercial schools has, we fear, given rise in some quarters to the opinion that technical education in Madras is a fraud, and simply means quill-driving—the training of clerks as book-keepers, shorthand-writers, or typists. That there is a germ of truth in this view, no one who looks into the figures of the Report would deny, but, on the other hand, we must not overlook the excellent industrial work that *is* being done at *Tinnevelly, Karur* and in the *Madras School of Arts.* There appear to be some 36 schools coming under the general head, with some 3,200 pupils. Of these some 2,000 learn *Freehand Outline Drawing,* which is of course a necessary prelimi-

nary to many trades. *Civil Engineering* claims nearly 1,000 students, but *Mechanical Engineering* less than 100. *Hygiene* has 180, *Commerce* some 370, *Music* 377. Coming to the less ornamental subjects we find only 73 take up *Jewellers' or Silversmiths' work*, though there has been a decided increase during the last few years. The *Printing and Bookbinding* section stands at 187, as against 212 in 1895. Under this head come Compositors' work, Proof readers' work, Press-work, Bookbinding and Stereotyping: in all except the first the numbers have increased during the last two years. In *Wood-work and Metal-work* there has been a steady increase of numbers, which now stand at 324: this is especially gratifying in the case of Cabinet-making, the students of which have quadrupled in the last two years. *Leather-work*, which apparently only includes Boot and Shoe-making, has declined to 31. This is not unnatural if the only kind of leather-work is that abovementioned. Surely it would be possible to introduce Harness-making or the making of purses, leather bags and other things against which Oriental prejudice is not so decided. Under *Textile Fabrics* we are sorry to see a very serious decline in numbers from 425 in 1893 to 355 in 1897. This is especially apparent in Cotton-weaving, Carpet-weaving, Lace-making and Braid-making, but will, we hope, be checked. It is of the utmost importance that the old industries such as cotton-weaving and dyeing and carpet-weaving should be preserved, encouraged and developed in South India, and *no expense or trouble should be spared* in achieving this result. What technical education should specially aim at is the encouragement and improvement of existing local industries which have been proved to suit the talents of the people, rather than the implanting of new and exotic growths from the West, which, after all, may only flourish as long as Government supports them. Of these the Indian dyeing industry is perhaps the most valuable, as it possesses colours of a richness, depth and beauty unknown to the vats of Manchester. Of this most important and unique industry no particulars have been given, but we trust efforts will be made without delay to include it, if it is not already included. During the last five years *Glass and Pottery-making* have declined slightly from 35 to 21, while *Tailoring, Dress-making and Needlework* have slightly increased and now claim 222 students. *Cookery* curiously enough is apparently not taught. Among some nine minor industries we might notice slight increases under

Tambour-work, which claims 16, and *Varnishing*, 31. *Metal-work*, we are sorry to see, has declined from 53 to 22 during the last five years, but, on the other hand, 33 students have taken up *Decorative work* and 12 *Gardening*, both of which are new subjects.

In spite, therefore, of the natural tendency for Indian *Technical Education* to develope on professional rather than industrial lines, it is clear enough that good industrial work is being done under the auspices of the Government Technical Examinations. Whether, however, *enough* work is done is another question, and no one is likely to consider the present condition of things as anything more than a fair beginning. To judge of the inadequacy of the present state of things, and of the lines on which industrial education must develope in the future, we have only to turn to the valuable *Appendix M*. already referred to. This is, we think, one of the most cheering features of the present Report, and may be taken as a pledge that the Department is really in earnest in the matter of Technical Education. In itself it is so simple, but it speaks volumes for the present backward condition of industrial education, and the crying need of thorough and extensive development of the present rudimentary system. Its main features are a list of districts, chief local industries, technical schools, the subjects taught in them and the classes of the community attending the schools. Of the 22 districts of the Madras Presidency 21 have local industries, many of them several; yet of these 21 districts, no fewer than 7 *are absolutely destitute of technical or industrial schools of any kind*. Of the remaining 14 districts, 9 have got technical schools, but *in no single case do they teach any of the local industries*, no matter how many there may be in the district. The remaining 5 districts teach one local local industry, in four cases Weaving, while the fifth, Madras, teaches Metal-work. Against this we must set a number of more or less exotic industries, and a fine array of ornamental subjects of the clerical kind. One more remark we must make, and that is that out of 3,222 students studying "technical" subjects *no fewer than 532 are Brahmins*, who belong to an avowedly non-industrial class.

The total expenditure on Technical, Industrial and Art Schools has, we are sorry to see, steadily declined from Rs. 1,86,000 to Rs. 1,75,000 during the last five years, in spite of the need for a development of this kind of education. We wish we could believe

that this was owing to these institutions becoming more self-supporting, but unfortunately the high prices asked for their produce, for example in the Madras School of Art, prohibit such a desirable result, and destroy the possibility of that wholesome rivalry in excellence of workmanship between independent workmen and industrial schools, which seems to be overlooked in South India, but which has done so much good in the North, notably in Jeypore. In that city the energetic management of the School of Art has set the pace for the making of that admirable brass-work which is famed alike in the East and the West, and has secured the manufacture of those particular kinds of articles for which there is a large demand. Not only, however, has the total expenditure declined in Madras, but Provincial and Local Funds have contributed a steadily diminishing amount during the last five years.

The paragraph on the *Extension of Technical Education* is, we venture to think, in some respects very disappointing, chiefly with respect to the work that has been already done. Let us see in what it consists. *Laboratories* have been opened at the Presidency College. But what have they to do with technical education? A School of *Commerce* has been started at Calicut. This will assist in the production of more clerks, and spread a knowledge of book-keeping, shorthand and typewriting, but what of that? The *Revenue and Criminal tests* have been opened to diplomaed and certificated Commercial and Agricultural candidates, who will now think less than ever of Commerce and Agriculture as a means of self-support. *Four* apprentices are to be trained annually in the College of Engineering as industrial teachers. Alas, what are they among so many? It is proposed to reorganise the School of Arts. We trust some good will come from this anyhow. Local Boards and Municipalities have been invited to found technical schools. We hope the schools, if established, will not be simply for providing these bodies with cheap book-keepers and reporters, but for the genuine development of the local industries: we have enough commercial schools already. Grants have been provided for industrial exhibitions: but where are the exhibitions? They certainly will need to be worked up, but if they are pushed forward in earnest may be of immense use in stirring up industry and bringing buyer and and seller together,—no matter how Deputy Collectors and Brahmin officials may shake their heads over the scheme. They must, how-

ever, be held in large towns and at festival times when crowds of strangers are in the neighbourhood.

Surely the above facts are enough to show that much has yet to be done if Technical Education is to be of any real use to the country. The districts at present destitute of industrial schools must be supplied with them, and the chief local industries must be taught before they are extinct. If the perennial cry of "want of funds" be raised, it must not be listened to. *Funds must be forthcoming somehow*, if not by additional votes, then by diversion from some other section of the Department, for in a matter of the industry of a country there can be no trifling or folding of the hands to sleep. The flimsy excuse that the people do not desire industrial training is equally dangerous and more contemptible. They must be made to desire it. We do not wait till a sick child asks for the doctor, we send for him whether it wants him or not, for we know that the child is ill and must either die or be cured. The whole future of India depends on an industrial awakening, and this can only be brought about by the wholesale and broadcast spreading of *genuine, practical, workmanlike* industrial training. Half measures will not do, they only delude and destroy. *Laisser faire* was never meant for vivifying India and the East. Whether, on the other hand, an overburdened Department of Education is best fitted for this work is very open to question. We should like to see a special Department of Industry and Commerce established, to work in harmony with the Education Department, but to do much which that Department could not do, especially to undertake the work of an honest broker between the Indian artisan and the European dealer, to improve existing industries, to develope fresh ones, and to create new markets.

We come now to a very different subject, *Female Education*, in which there has been a slow but steady improvement during the last five years, especially in 1897. There are now nearly 117,000 girls being educated : not a very large number truly, but still one that is likely to grow every year. The F. A. Examination continues in the hands of the Eurasian and Native Christian ladies, but the 277 lady matriculates include four Brahmin, one Muhammedan, and six Parsi ladies. Girls' High Schools have slightly diminished in number but increased by 10 per cent. in strength during the last five years. Of the 324 girls in these schools the Europeans,

Eurasians and Native Christians were well ahead. There were no Brahmins whatever. In Girls' Middle Schools there has been a slight fall both in number and in strength during the five years. There were in 1897, 40 English and 142 Vernacular schools with about 3,500 and 13,000 pupils, respectively. The Lower Secondary departments have gained while the Primary have lost. Girls' Primary Schools have slightly increased in number, but risen by 9 per cent. in strength: there are now 800 schools with nearly 34,000 pupils. It is to be noted that girls' schools under private management have but slightly advanced, and that in spite of all the talk about the benefits of female education, it is the Brahmin community that is most backward in the matter.

With regard to the *Education of Europeans*, there has been a slight fall in the number and strength of institutions, with a decided rise in expenditure from fees and endowments. The contributions from Provincial and Municipal Funds have fallen during the five years.

The *Education of Muhammedans*, to which the Department had been paying a good deal of attention, has been slowly progressing, and the percentage of Muhammedan children being educated, compared with those of school-going age, has risen from 25 to nearly 30 per cent. The number of girls in the primary stage has, however, fallen considerably. Mappila boys' schools have slightly retrograded in spite of every effort, but girls' schools have slightly increased in strength. Upwards of 2 lakhs was spent during last year on Muhammedan education generally, 63 per cent. of which came from public funds.

The *Education of Panchamas* has steadily progressed: the number of boy pupils rose from nearly 21,000 in 1892 to 34,500 in 1897, girls from 3,600 to nearly 5,000. The expenditure on these was upwards of 2 lakhs. About 8 per cent. of Panchama boys and 1 per cent. of girls are at school.

The *Aboriginal Tribes* seem to have waked up at last to the benefits of education, thanks to the energy of the Department, the number of their children at school having very largely increased during the five years under review; boys have quadrupled and girls doubled, there being now at school nearly 33,000 boys and 74 girls of these tribes.

With reference to the *Education of Native Chiefs and Noblemen,* we note with pleasure that Revenue Law and Estate Management are among the subjects taught them, and we trust that Agriculture and a general scientific training will also be included before long. It is of the greatest importance that the education of the leading men of the country should be on thoroughly practical lines, if they are to set a useful example to those who look up to them for guidance.

As touching *Private Institutions* we regret to observe a serious fall in the number and strength of Sanskrit and Arabic High Schools. Sanskrit and Arabic Middle Schools and Elementary private schools have risen very considerably.

Among the many interesting topics touched on in the Director's *General Remarks* we may notice a few. Liberal grants for the *education of the blind, the deaf, and the dumb* are awarded. The *Kindergarten* system is being gradually introduced. The importance of *Manual Training* is recognised. *Hostels* are proposed for Madras, Kumbakonam and Rajahmundry, but in this respect private institutions are a long way ahead of public ones. The important question of *school accommodation* has been receiving considerable attention, and here we might remark that in the case of Primary Schools it is perhaps better not to ask for more than cleanliness, good air, sufficient space, and shelter: in many cases temples and choultries might with a little management furnish much better accommodation than could be obtained in any other building, while, at the same time, the temple authorities might be induced to lend the school substantial pecuniary support. For young children with only a few hours of school work, furniture might well be of the simplest description. The formation of the *Art Loan Collection,* one of the latest Departmental developments, is noticed, as also the good work of the *Teachers' Guild.* The resolutions of the 1897 *Grants-in-aid Committee,* in favour of fixed grants for a term of years instead of results grants for lower secondary schools, and of extending this system to certain other classes of schools, are recorded. The results of the experiment of employing *Schoolmasters as Village Postmasters* are noticed as having been satisfactory, and the number of Schoolmasters so employed is given: 371 Local Fund schoolmasters, 5 Government schoolmasters. The *Recommendations of the Education Commission* have in most

cases been kept well in view, with perhaps one rather important exception, namely the steadily increasing expenditure on Government institutions from 8 lakhs in 1891-2 to 10 lakhs in 1896-7, and the stationary condition of Grants-in-aid. From the point of view of the Aided Manager this is a serious blot on the present Report, but we must in fair play remember that a good deal of this extra expenditure has been incurred in order to provide the requisites of a first-class training in natural science, and that therefore it has been to some extent necessary and exceptional. We can scarcely avoid the natural corollary of a demand for increased grants, namely the necessity for greater Departmental control over aided institutions, and more co-operation among them. A brief account of the reorganisation of the Educational Department, and of the revision of codes, syllabuses and rules of institutions brings this lengthy but most instructive Report to an end: elaborate Appendices follow.

The clear and concise review of the Report by Government calls for but little comment. The needs of Secondary and Primary education must be met from private funds or by a saving in the higher grades of institutions. More attention is needed with regard to Muhammedans.

"In general it may be said that the growth of education is keeping well ahead of the growth of population, and that the whole system is at once more popular, more concentrated and more efficient. . . . .

"In conclusion, it gives His Excellency the Governor in Council great pleasure to observe the many evidences of energy and zeal in the Department, which has achieved a considerable measure of success in the last five years under the experienced and able leadership of the Hon'ble Dr. Duncan."

With these pleasant reflections all educationists, whatever their views, are glad to agree. No doubt much still remains to be done before education in South India can be regarded as thoroughly satisfactory, but the work left over is but small compared with what confronted the Department five years ago. During the last five years in almost every direction a great amount of progress has been achieved, new institutions, new developments, better buildings, more students, greater efficiency, greater scope, —consolidation, re-organisation, improvement everywhere. Of the

work that yet remains over, the lines have been to a considerable extent sketched in the thoughtful and comprehensive Report under review. It will remain for Dr. Duncan's successors to fill in the rest of the design without faltering, and to enjoy the sight of the finished picture: happy will they be if they can hand over charge of the thankless and burdensome post of Director of Public Instruction after as zealous, as faithful, and as successful a stewardship.

A TECHNICAL NUNNERY IN IRELAND.

BY C. S. BREMNER.

The amount of educational work in the hands of the Irish nuns is very great; indeed, almost the whole of primary and secondary Catholic education for girls is conducted by them. Not only so, but they are the people to whom everybody in Ireland seems quite naturally to look for the carrying on of a vast amount of social and philanthropic work. In Protestant Ireland such social activity is usually in the hands of women living in their families, much as it is in England; in Catholic Ireland there is but one organization of society, the Church; everything turns round this pivot. Are training colleges necessary for Catholic teachers? Monks and nuns assume the management as naturally as possible. The workhouse infirmary is not well managed; there is waste, discomfort, discontent. The nuns are called in, as at Tuam, and effect a great improvement. At Cork and Limerick the Convents of the Good Shepherd manage penitentiaries; they have started large well-equipped laundries, and the penitents find salvation in a work which goes a long way to make these institutions self-supporting. A number of the industrial schools are in the hands of the nuns; the Government pays 5*s.* weekly for the support of a certain number of children; the nuns take over the management, subject to Government inspection. When the potatoes are done—and they are often finished by January—the nuns start soup and porridge kitchens. They are the district visitors, and can tell you all the ins and outs of the neighbourhood. At Sligo there is a domestic training school, where some sixty young servants can get training. The same Convent of Mercy which superintends it has a small model farm, and especially an excellent dairy, beautifully fitted with marble slabs and pitch pine. The Convent has also an industrial school and a work school

which supplies a London house with exquisite embroideries, lace, underclothing. Presumably Catholic ladies play no part in social work save through the nuns. The communities are very numerous, living under different regulations and of different classes of life. Sometimes the ladies do comparatively little social work, but live the life of devotion and contemplation; often there are lay Sisters of a lower class in life, who undertake the work of the house. At other times the Sisters seem to gather up in their hands the whole of the social threads of a neighbourhood.

Foxford, County Mayo, is a striking example of this. The Sisters, of Charity had settled at Ballaghaderreen in the eastern part of County Mayo in 1877; the Convent had thriven and done much good. The Reverend Mother thought it would be well if a number of them settled in a fresh neighbourhood and carried on the work there. She visited a somewhat benighted part (Foxford) in December, 1890, to see if it offered a suitable field. Deep poverty, dirt, misery, starvation—these things did not dismay her. A house was bought, now known as the Convent of the Divine Providence, with a garden extending down to the river Moy, and in April, 1891, about a dozen Sisters settled here.

The Reverend Mother is no ordinary woman. Possessed of a considerable fortune, a beloved only daughter, handsome in person and with marked social gifts, she chose the life of a nun and joined the community of the Sisters of Charity, bringing her fortune with her. Moreover, she possess great power over others; when she wills a thing, sooner or later that thing has to rank as an achievement, however impossible it seems at the time, however much friends attempt to dissuade her; there exists in her so much overcoming force, such power over others, that mountains of difficulty are finally overcome. She is the first to rise, the last to retire to rest: she takes no flesh food or stimulants, eats very sparely, rests little, spends much time in devotion. The calm and composure of her manner is striking; she knows no haste, worry, or undue anxiety. Needless to say, the Sisters regard her with an enthusiastic devotion in which the whole neighbourhood shares.

The first thing the Sisters did on their settlement at Foxford was to open an elementary school. Many children could not come: they had no clothes, no shoes, no breakfast. This is a very common state of affairs in Ireland; parents have a way of looking to the nuns and monks for food and clothing for their children. A good breakfast of hot porridge and milk was provided, and soon there was no lack of children; clothing was given also, but the Reverend Mother had views about the clothing which she worked out later when confidence was

established. It was to be given, but presently there would have to be a *quid pro quo* on the part of parents. The new school was placed under the rules of the Commissioners of Education at Dublin to allow of the Government grant being earned.

There were many things in Foxford which the Reverend Mother inwardly decided should be changed ere long.

Whenever she or the good Sisters remonstrated with the easy-going Foxford people about their neglect of the decencies of life, always the same answer was made. Their poverty was so wretched and grinding that nothing could be done. There was no work in the place by which wages could be earned. The men went to England for the harvest in summer, but, by the time the expenses were paid and the rent, and often the bill that had been run up at the grocer's during the severe winter months, there was nothing left for improvement. Indeed the Sisters well knew the truth of this objection, for more shopkeepers than one had been ruined in Foxford by granting credit to the starving people. What could be done where the struggle was so severe to keep even body and soul together? The Reverend Mother thought and thought again. The various small industries like basket-making, lace, embroidery, seemed only to give work to a few women; for various reasons they did not fit the conditions at Foxford, and besides, there were already large numbers of such industries, almost entirely depending on outside support for their maintenance.

Walking in the Community garden, the foaming Moy (Mary'-River) always sounded in her ears: "Try me, try me," it said quite plainly. What could it do, all this water-power running to waste? It could turn a saw-mill, but there was little timber; it could supply motor-power for a mill of some kind. Since the neighbourhood was agricultural, supporting a large number of sheep, why not buy their wool from the farmers, start a woollen factory, and sell woven goods? The Reverend Mother mentioned the idea to a few people, and they douched it well with cold water. A very likely thing that nuns, women who are, and always have been, mere babes in knowledge of the world could buy wool, manage a mill, when labour is so difficult to control nowadays, sell in the right markets. The good Mother and her senses must have parted company to think of it for a moment.

Everything possible was once more mentally reviewed, the *pros* and *cons* examined and the scheme rejected; the people still starved and lived with their animals, and still the Moy begged for a trial. Finally, the Reverend Mother reached the momentous decision that she would give the Moy a trial; she borrowed £1,000, and, amid much opposition

from quarters where she might have expected help, she started building a very modest factory of corrugated iron, one story high, in the Convent garden. The priests do not seem to have helped her, but, on the other hand, Protestants were pleased with her energy and speculation and lent assistance to the plucky Sisters. One friend in particular stood by her, advised about machinery, found a capable and conscientious manager, and other experts necessary for the venture—such as loom tuners, and carding and spinning mechanics. More and more money had to be raised; one thing seemed to demand another, and expensive machines swallowed up capital. Clouds, opposition, difficulties, arose on every side, but still Mother Bernard's faith made her calmly say: "It is the Lord's work; He *must* help His people. The general opinion was that the nuns were fools, and the feeling of being opposed did not make the task of these gentlewomen more easy. There is no need to lengthen the story. The Divine Providence Factory has been a great success. It has been extended again and again, till it bids fair to swallow up the Convent garden; it is still far from an imposing building. It is £17,000 in debt, but then it has brought work and wages to more than a hundred people, and has caused comparative wealth to flow into Foxford. There are numbers of workers who earn fifteen or twenty shillings a week, and that means wealth. Last year £2,600 was spent on the purchase of wool in the neighbourhood. The wool-sorting room is an immense place, where the wool goes through various processes; it is carded, spun, dyed, woven, shrunk, dressed. It is curious to see the nuns in their sombre dress and black veil passing to and fro, seeing to many things. One has the store-room under her special care, another Sister is in a small but very modern office, fitted up with Shannon files and a complete set of of mighty ledgers. All the hands seem to work with a will, for work at Foxford is still a novelty and is, therefore, enjoyed. It is good to know that the Sisters have a market for all they can produce. They make blankets, travelling rugs, flannels, shawls, serges, tweeds, friezes, and other woollen stuffs. Their goods cannot be called low-priced, but those who like a good article for their money will not consider them dear. The nuns have an annual turnover of between £8,000 and £9,000.

Bank-books are now quite common in Foxford; I well remember the day I left, when I was sitting at breakfast, Sister Ministress came into the room with twenty or, perhaps, even thirty bank-books, and showed me how thrifty the Foxford people are becoming. All this growth of the Providence Factory coincides with the sanitary improvements already noted; it must not, however, be imagined

that Mother Bernard's resourcefulness and helpfulness ended with the establishment of the factory. That only began the social revolution she inaugurated. First, those places where the manure-pits had been—they must be converted into flower gardens; what had been worse than the desert was now to blossom as the rose. Much coaxing, giving away of seeds, and presentation of plants was necessary before Foxford would consent to take on the æsthetic side of life. But the Reverend Mother wished it, and it was just one of those many things that have to be done. Now there is a fair sprinkling of gardens with simple flowers, and there will have to be more by-and-by. There had also to be doors and windows for the cattle outhouses, and windows for the cabins themselves. Foxford had almost lost the trick of making them, and their importation was expensive. [They are not windows the size of those which adorn the Boulevard des Capucins or Regent Street: perhaps two feet square, or two feet by three, is the usual size of a Foxford window.] Boys must be taught to make them, and to make them cheaply, and forthwith we see the beginning of a technical school, also in the fast-diminishing nuns' garden. Not that the school is laid down on a large, imposing scale; far from it. A corner is found, an instructor obtained for a brief season, and then the new art begins to flourish. The Congested Districts Board has been a staunch abettor of Mother Bernard's enterprise. It gave £1,500 as a gift to start the factory, and advanced £7,000 besides. Moreover, the Board grants the Reverend Mother a sum averaging about £50 annually to carry on her sanitary improvements.

In the Sisters' garden you will also find another branch of technical work, a co-operative creamery. People come and sell their milk to the creamery, obtaining ready cash in exchange. At first they were distrusful and eyed the thing askance; and the Sisters lost on the venture, because in their desire to do good they gave too big a price. But now it is an acknowledged succes. There is a constant coming and going of small children with milk cans. The milk is made into excellent butter, and, since the best and most recent machinery is used, the creamery affords an object-lesson in dairy-work. One skilled dairy-woman, with three or four learners, is constantly engaged in the dairy-work.

A third branch of the nuns' organization of Foxford labour is a work-room where various employments are taught or carried on. A number of girls are busy shirt-making, several sewing-machines being in use; there are a dozen knitting-machines, which turn out large numbers of stockings; here is a girl busy making quilts out of waste woollen fluff, which is encased in the same way as eider-down. Sister

Hickey is in charge of this department, and it is popularly believed that, however extraordinary a thing is demanded from the work-room, the Sister will find some way of supplying the demand. A number of young girls, farmers' daughters, work in this room, in the dairy, or are pupil-teachers in the day school. For these, board and lodging is provided by the community at a moderate figure.

The Reverend Mother does not regard it as sufficient to improve the people of Foxford; in her scheme of coordination and correlation the poultry, vegetables, fruits, also require levelling up. In 1895 there was a great exhibition held at Foxford "under the patronage of His Excellency the Lord Lieutenant," and many other exalted individuals. The first two sections, embracing poultry, eggs, butter, hand-and power-loom weaving, knitting, needlework, embroidery, and so forth, were open to the whole of Ireland, and the railway must have felt grateful to the Sisters for their emprise. The third section was limited within a radius of five miles of Foxford. A practical genius was certainly the the author of the prize list. Prizes for splicing broken broom and rake handles, for making a salt box, glazing a window pane, putting on a lock, making a window frame (upper sash to let down), stool, chair, bedstead; prizes for gardens producing six kinds of vegetables, provided twenty compete; for replacing manure-pit by a garden; for gardens cared for by school-children; for cooking and laundry work; for the best door mat; the best patch on any garment; for the neatest, tidiest house, interior and exterior, kept by pupils attending the Convent schools; for the cleanest, tidiest, and best kept children.

It is fully recognized that the Irish boy must be constantly "amended, redressed, and supervised," like poor Henry III. in his work of governing England. The Reverend Mother urges the women-folk never to relax their effort. Prize of 10*s*. for boy under eighteen who, during the year, exhibits the best patched and most carefully mended clothes; prize of 10*s*. for mother, sister, or aunt who kept them always in repair for him; another prize of 10*s*. for boy attending the male school who, during the year, was most remarkable for general neatness and cleanliness, besides prizes for neat and tidy families of children. There were, moreover, prizes for the best makeshift for evicted poultry and pigs, and many other such-like encouragements to cleanliness, decency, and order. It is satisfactory to know that some of these prizes have been retained since the excitement of an exhibition passed away. Prizes for patched elbows and well-patched garments are still the rule. Foxford, speaking generally, has abjured rags, and the school-children are wonderfully neat and tidy. Public opinion may be said to be formed on

various matters. For instance, the Reverend Mother now listens to complaints against unregenerate neighbours who refuse to clear away unsightly and malodorous manure-pits, to the great disgust of certain persons and to the scandal of Foxford.—*Educational Times.*

THE UNIVERSITY OF WALES AND ITS EDUCATIONAL THEORY.*

On the 30th of November, 1893, the Great Seal was affixed to a Charter constituting the University of Wales. The University thus brought into being was a public authority, empowered, subject to certain conditions specified in its Charter, to confer academic degrees on candidates presented by the public University colleges which had of recent years been incorporated in Wales, and to advance such graduates to further degrees upon conditions which it should itself lay down with the sanction of its Visitor. The University commenced its operations in June, 1895, when its first examination for matriculation was held. Of the results of its work it is as yet premature to speak; but the 530 students who have matriculated in it during its first three years are welcome evidence of the confidence it has inspired among the Welsh people and a hopeful presage for the future. Few documents of similar nature, one may venture to say, were ever more fully and minutely considered than the draft of the Charter thus carried into effect. Its main lines were laid down by a public Conference held in the autumn of 1891, its every detail was anxiously discussed by a representative Committee in a series of meetings which extended through the greater part of the succeeding year; and it is somewhat remarkakle that, although the earlier meetings had appeared to show almost irreconcilable antagonisms of opinion on essential points, the scheme which eventually emerged from these laborious discussions was one which had gained not merely the acceptance, but the cordial approval, of nearly every member of the Committee. It was referred by the Committee to the original Conference; by the Conference it was remitted to the colleges, to the sixteen County Councils of Wales, to the Press, and to the public, and was the

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*The Presidential Address read at the Tenth General Conference of the Teachers' Guild by Dr. Isambard Owen, Senior Deputy Chancellor of the University of Wales. Reprinted from *The Journal of Education*.

subject of discussion in numerous meetings and in the columns of the newspapers from end to end of Wales for six months further, before a draft was laid before the Lord President of the Council for acceptance. From this ordeal and from the further scrutiny of legal advisers and of a Committee of the Privy Council the scheme emerged unscathed, and, save for a few minor points of detail, the Charter which passed into law in November, 1893, is identical in its provisions with the scheme which was framed and submitted in the preceding December by the Charter Committee. The constitution of our University, therefore, and the detailed provisions in which it is embodied in our Charter are not the result of compromises between conflicting views and opposing interests, but represent a fairly uniform intention and embody a consistent educational theory; and I thought that I could not better occupy the time allotted for this address than by attempting, however imperfectly, to give you some idea of the views upon which our Charter was based, and of the manner in which the promoters of the scheme endeavoured to give effect to them.

A University must needs be considered under two aspects, for it has a double duty to perform. Its business is at once to promote the advancement of knowledge and the cultivation of learning among its members, and to undertake the education of aspirants to its degrees. Though in practice best united, the two duties are technically separable, and at different epochs and in different Universities one or the other has assumed the greater prominence and come to be regarded as the more especial University function. It may, perhaps, be said that in modern Germany the former duty has somewhat tended to obscure the latter, while in the United Kingdom it is unduly sacrificed to the imperious requirements of undergraduate education. Our institution, we trust, will equally occupy both provinces of University work, and it is not from indifference to the former that I am fain to give but scant time to it on the present occasion. We are, indeed, but feeling our way towards it, and at the present stage one can only indicate the lines on which we believe our work in it will develop. Properly speaking, it will be in large measure the province of our colleges rather than of the University itself; but our colleges are, as I shall show in detail later, so closely knit with the constitution of the University that, for University purposes, it is difficult to regard them otherwise than as parts of the same institution.

How best the advancement of knowledge by way of research may generally be promoted is a difficult and delicate subject on which much has been said and little definitely settled. The highest class

of research is, indeed, independent of promotion, and one may add of discouragement as well. The Harveys and Galileos are natural phenomena, which institutions can do little to evoke or to suppress. But the journey-work of research has to be done as well as its pioneering, the plodding through the clay as well as the dash across the heights. The pursuit of knowledge by research is often but a dull piece of task-work, often disappointing, often discouraging, often productive of no worldly reward beyond the satisfaction of labour done. How best can a University or a college hold a helping hand to the men on whose work its fame will depend?

Of the direct endowment of research, about which a few years back we heard so much, little need now be said. Grants in aid of specified inquiries, administered by competent authorities, are, indeed, among the most productive of benefactions. One such, by the generosity of the Gilchrist Trustees, our University is already empowered to administer, and valuable results have not been wanting; but, if by the direct endowment of research is meant the establishment of permanent pensions, pledging their holders to no definite obligations, but meant in general terms to enable them to live a life of learning or research, it would be lost time to argue that while human nature is what it is such endowments are not likely to produce any commesurate results. Man is at best but an indolent animal, and procrastination his besetting sin when the spur of immediate obligation is wanting.

From the older English Universities there is, unfortunately, less to learn than one would wish. Their output of research is notoriously out of relation to the number and wealth of their academic foundations. It must be remembered that the promotion of research, as we understand it to-day, was no part of the original scheme of an Oxford or Cambridge college. But the accidental utilization of part of their income as in some sort an endowment of research has shown, at least, the defects of the Oxford and Cambridge system as applied to this particular object. We see men definitely chosen for the academic carreer at far too early an age—before their real bent or capacity has had time to show itself. We see them chosen for prowess in the examination-room alone before they have proved their capabilities either in teaching or in independent work. We see them placed in a position in which no adequate future career is open to them that is to be achieved by the pursuit of special learning or original investigation. To the young resident Fellow of his college seniority may bring an increase of emolument, talent for organization, a tutorship or bursarship, personal respect the headship of his house; but the distant and doubtful prospect of an illpaid University

professorship weighs light in the scale against the solid rewards that are before him if he will but abandon the higher intellectual work for the lucrative office of coaching undergraduates for examinations.

If we wish to succeed, we must learn of the successful. In Germany, the land of research, *par excellence*, we find the business of research deemed in practice inseparable from the office of teaching; we find examination successes counted as only one, and that not the most important, of the qualifications for the academic life; we find each aspirant required to serve a period of probation before being definitely admitted to the University office; and we find a career placed before him, when admitted, which he may hope to surmount, stage after stage, by his own exertions, both in the field of genuine teaching and in that of original research. Finally, we find the educational work of the University placed on a basis which offers little encouragement for "coaching," as understood in the English Universities. We need not, indeed, go so far as Germany for such an example. We may see a system based on identically the same principles in full work in a nearer set of institutions, which, up to the present, have not engaged the attention of educationists as much as, perhaps, they deserve. The contributions of our own metropolis to the current rapid advance of medicine and surgery are, in the main, the result of the application of these principles of selection and promotion in the ordering of the London medical schools. Something of the kind, it seems probable, will, eventually, work out in Wales, as the available means of our colleges progressively increase. Their teaching is on a professorial basis; and, in reference to University work, is necessarily so. As the number of students increases, the need of sub-professorial positions proportionally augments; all such appointments, by the constitution of the colleges, are staff appointments, made by the college itself, and the tendency is towards the creation of an ordered academic service, ranging from rank to rank. As the material prosperity of the colleges augments the remuneration of their academic staff, junior offices will become more and more objects of ambition to men who aspire to the senior posts, and a system of promotion within the service tend, as in older Universities, more and more to become the rule.

One connecting link is needed, and that the University is endeavouring to supply—the link between undergraduate and official life. We want some means to enable the promising young graduate to remain a few more years in connexion with his college, or to resort to some other seat of learning without losing touch with his University, to spend his time in advance study, to prove his bent or show his capacity for academic life. We want to create a reserve of our own graduates upon

which to draw as occasion may serve. This we are endeavouring to effect by an establishment of University Fellowships open to our graduates; offices meant not to be regarded as mere prizes, but as specfically granted for the purpose of advance study or original work, and forfeitable if the intention of the endowment is not duly carried out. May one prophetically see in some not distant future the staffs of the colleges recruited by preference from the ranks of the University Fellows, the successive steps of academic promotion placed before the recruits to achieve, and each step bearing, thanks to the wise generosity of our wealthy countrymen, the substantial remuneration which is its rightful due?

What more the University is doing or proposing to do in this province I must postpone to the latter part of my address. So much I have thought right to say in order to show that we are alive to the importance of the union in our colleges of the two classes of University work. In practice, indeed, one cannot long flourish without the other. The pursuit of knowledge is in danger of growing languid unless kept in tone by the obligation of communicating it, and educational methods of becoming dry and barren if they be not refreshed by irrigation from the living spring of original intellectnal work. But, in its present stage, the University of Wales must be judged mainly from an educational standpoint; and my immediate object is to speak of the educational theory which guided its promoters and to which they endeavoured to give effect in its Charter of foundation. It is with the education aspect of a University, indeed, that the provisions of a University Charter in this country are chiefly concerned. The educational power, or, rather, the power of verifying education, is, with us, the one function of a University for which a public legislative Act is essential; and the questions involved in the grant of a Charter are, with few exceptions, questions of the conditions under which undergraduates may present themselves as candidates, and under which initial degrees shall be allowed to issue. This has, probably, largely helped in fixing the minds of our compatriots, as undoubtedly they are fixed, too exclusively on the educative side of a University's work.

The fundamental ideas on which our Charter was based were few and simple. They were, briefly, that education implied systematic training of the powers of the mind, and not merely the imparting of a given bulk of knowledge; that direct personal teaching is an element of immense importance in education; that the University stage of education should imply such teaching at the hands of highly qualified specialists, each dealing with his own particular subject; that teaching

is an art in itself, which needs, like other arts, to be learned before it can be successfully practised; and that examinations, as practically possible, are but a partial and imperfect means of testing educational results. These ideas are not original; in such an audience as the present I think I may even venture to claim that they are orthodox; but some measure of interest may attach to the manner in which they have been embodied in our scheme. Whatever subject we take, beyond the most elementary, that is ordinarily taught for educational purposes, it is obvious that it must be taught with some further end than the mere acquisition of facts. Geometry, logic, and philosophy, as school subjects, have hardly ever even made the pretence of being directly useful. Latin, it is true, was in the Middle Ages as needful to know as French and German are now, and Greek was originally introduced merely as a key to the literature it contained; but the employment of these languages in education has continued long after learned men ceased to write and converse in Latin, and long after literary interests ceased to centre mainly in the classical tongues. It may be said that the maintenance of classical studies in our schools is but a respectable tradition, from which we are too timid to break away. Let us look, then, at a subject which has no tradition at all to support it, one that we have but lately introduced into our schools, with our nineteenth-century eyes wide open—the system of mechanical exercise which the Swedes call Slöjd. The visitor to some of the most modern of our schools will see the pupils during certain hours of the week engaged in cutting spoons and bowls and other domestic articles out of pieces of word. Are they taught this art in order that when grown-up they may make their own spoons and bowls instead of buying them in the shops? Certainly not, but in order that they may acquire habits of close observation and attention to detail, of careful measurement, and of working by and to measurement, and the power of making the hand follow the intentions of the mind. It is not the art of carving wood, but the principles and methods of mechanical work in general, that the pupils are making their own. Once thoroughly and systematically grasped, the pupils will readily learn to adapt them to any particular set of conditions they may subsequently have to meet.

So with the classical languages: the average grammar-school boy is not taught them in order that the average educated man may be able to read, write, or speak Latin and Greek (the average educated man, we well know, can do nothing of the kind); but that he may acquire, amongst the other similar things, the habit of minute attention to verbal forms and to the shades of meaning they may be used to convey, the

habit of distinct realization of the ideas he desires to express, the habit of exact verbal construction and the power of detecting and avoiding verbal pitfalls; in a word, the principles and methods of language, the instrument of half his future life. Or history: the average man is not directly concerned to know what points were in dispute between the Roman *plebs* and the Roman patricians twenty-four centuries back, or what particular events led to the rise and the fall of the Roman Empire whose very shadow has passed away; but he *is* concerned, and deeply concerned, to understand the springs of collective human action, to know how men or masses of men are swayed by interest, by pride, by passion, prejudice, or patriotic zeal, to be able to foresee the probable conduct of his fellows under given sets of circumstances; and precisely this is what such a history as that of Rome, in the hands of a competent guide, is capable of teaching him. Should he pursue his historical studies to greater depth, he will gain, what is at least of equal importance, an acquaintance with methods of historical study, and the principles on which verbal statements may be accepted or rejected as constituting historical evidence.

Professed utilitarians in education press hard the claims of the natural sciences even as school subjects: but it is difficult to see on what the idea of their direct utility to the average man is based. In this country, at least, they are not a very remunerative occupation, and four-fifths of our countrymen will pass their lives without finding an opportunity to earn a sixpence by their school knowledge of the natural sciences or losing any appreciable sum for want of it. But the educationist who is not a utilitarian has a far more logical reason for urging their claims, since, apart from the intrinsic interest of their subject-matter, the student who pursues them in a truly educative manner may gain, what will be of more value to him than many facts, an insight into the methods of scientific inquiry and into the nature and principles of scientific proof.

I am skimming lightly over the surface of a very large subject, to illustrate, and with no idea of precisely defining, the views of the nature of a liberal education which appealed to the University's promoters. Roughly speaking, I think we should all have been agreed that its main object is less the communication of facts (important as "brute knowledge" undoubtedly is) than the inculcation of principles and the training to their proper use of the various powers of the mind—the powers, let us say, for example, of observation, concentration, and memory, first of all; the powers, next, of measurement, interpretation, expression, and construction; finally, the power of using the several methods, the mathematical, the philosophic, the scientific, the historic, by which logical

conclusions may be reached and truth in mundane affairs approximately arrived at. Collectively and individually we are voyagers on the sea of life; the more methods we learn of keeping and correcting our reckoning, the better we shall be able to shape our course.

Of an education such in kind as I have roughly attempted to indicate, an education comprising mental discipline as well as store of knowledge, dealing with principles and methods no less than with facts, it was the desire of the promoters of the University that its initial degrees, the degrees that transferred its students from the apprenticeship to the freedom of the corporation, should imply the possession. The further degrees which graduate members might afterwards aspire to take should, it was generally held, be treated as recognitions of more specialized erudition or of special original work.* Such an education as we contemplated for our initial degrees, one may readily admit, a few exceptional students might manage to reach by their own unaided use of written books; but legislation cannot be limited to the case of exceptional men, and in this company I need scarcely argue—I may take it to be the accepted result of scholastic experience—that for all the shortest and safest, for most the only possible, way of attaining such an education is by the contact of living mind with living mind, the direct personal instruction of teachers who are both masters of their subjects and masters of the art of imparting them to others. Such an education, in Wales, is fortunately now within the reach of ability and industry, from whatever class they may spring.

Half a century ago, had one asked a prominent educationist how a University should satisfy itself as to the character of the education on which it was asked to place a stamp, his reply would have been prompt and unhesitating: "By rigid and impartial examination." The experience of fifty examination-ridden years has insensibly modified this view, and educational opinion in the present day seems rather in danger of under-estimating than of over-valuing the efficacy of examination tests. In theory, no doubt, the process of examination is capable of all that was once credited to it; but in framing our policy we had to consider examinations not as under some ideal set of circumstances they might be, but in the form to which practical experience has shown that University examinations must be restricted—examinations, that is to say, conducted mainly by written papers, and those of limited number, with but sparing resort to *viva voce* tests.

* The regulations of the University require candidates for the degree of Master in Arts to present a thesis or dissertation embodying independent work, as well as to submit themselves to an examination.

There are certain rigid conditions with which questions that can with fairness be set in examination papers must needs conform; and the practical examiner, setting papers in any given subject, soon discovers that the number of questions he can set in it complying with all the necessary conditions is a somewhat closely limited one, and that there are considerable portions and aspects of the subject, probably of educational value equal to the rest, which elude his power of framing admissible questions upon them. The teacher who teaches for the sake of the subject and not of the examination will take his pupil through every part of the subject alike; but the tutor whose primary aim, for any reason, is his pupil's place in the examination list will be judicious enough to direct him to neglect those portions and aspects of the subject in which no questions are to be expected, and to concentrate his attention on those which according to the tutor's experience are likely to be "set." Between the student who has been fully taught and the student who has only been judiciously prepared the examination paper may fail to detect the difference, even when the plainest and barest set of facts is in question. Nor, further, can paper work furnish any satisfactory criterion of the depth and permanence of the candidate's information, whether it is "ingrain," or merely surface colour, deliberately and thoroughly built up or dexterously piled together for the purpose of the paper and destined to fall to pieces almost before the list is out. Either kind of knowledge may furnish answers correct in substance and form; between the two an examiner may guess, but cannot know; or, if he can, he is not permitted to use his knowledge.

If such are the shortcomings of examination where plain matters of fact are alone involved, it is hardly to be expected that its results can be more satisfactory when the question is of the candidate's grasp of principles and methods. Questions now become still more difficult to frame, their scope more narrowly limited, and the difficulty of distinguishing between a reply which is the result of the candidate's independent thought and one which has been merely conned by rote in direct anticipation of a question is correspondingly greater. Much, of course, depends on the nature of the subject and the degree in which practical exercises can be introduced to test the candidate's mastery of its principles. In mathematics, and in the traditional form of classical training, the efficacy of the examination process is, perhaps, at its greatest; far less when the natural sciences are in question; and in history, probably, at its least.

Could *viva voce* be more generally employed, matters would, doubtless, be improved. The method is more flexible, and can be made to

cover ground which written questions are unable to reach, while the cumulative method of questioning that oral examination permits—I mean the basing of further questions on answers already given—enables an examiner to form a far more accurate idea than a written paper of the extent to which the candidate understands what he is speaking of. But in examinations on which important decisions hang *viva voce* can only be very sparingly introduced. It is impossible, satisfactorily, to equalize the severity of differents sets of questions put to successive candidates, and there is always an unknown quantity to be accounted for—the specific nervousness or shyness of the individual examinee.

But, while recognizing the limits of efficacy of the examination process, the framers of our University scheme would not have it supposed that they under-estimated the real value in education of examinations or of the work of preparation for examinations. All intellectual exercise must be educative in some kind, and the process of preparation for examination, however it be conducted, is in itself a training of a very valuable sort—a training in concentration, alertness, rapid grasp of facts, habits of system and order, readiness in producing and marshalling available knowledge when wanted; mental qualities of no small service in the actual business of life.

To the conduct of examinations, therefore, for educational as well as prudential reasons, the Charter Committee, as will be presently seen, devoted particular attention. The University's scheme of examinations has been worked out with no less care than any other part of its system, and on the score of our examinations alone, as at present conducted, we might be content to court comparisons, even though passing them were the only qualification required for our degrees. But some more direct assurance of the fulness and completeness of the education which aspirants to initial degrees have received we held the University must require than examinations were able to afford. We held that it must take cognizance of the character and methods of the teaching it was expected to recognize as well as of the results that could be displayed in examination form. Nay, as the education in our eyes was the essential end, and the examination mainly a means to it, we thought it well that the language of the Charter should give no doubtful indication of its intentions on this point. In our Charter, therefore, and in the statutes and regulations based upon it, the qualification for an initial degree is nowhere to be found defined as the passing of examinations alone, but invariably as the pursuance of a scheme of study approved by the University, followed by the passing of such corresponding examinations as the University may direct. Our syllabuses are not published as sylla-

buses of examination, but in formal terms as schemes or courses of study. The distinction may seem an academic one, but phraseology is not an unimportant agent in determining the course of human affairs.

(*To be continued.*)

THE COMPULSORY EDUCATION ACT OF 1870.

The Compulsory Education Act of 1870 has been so completely accepted by both the advocates and opponents of compulsory legislation that the failure of the Act to achieve its first object, where it has failed, are either altogether ignored or are attributed to some other than the real causes. That the Act has failed is certain, however strongly the fact may be denied, and notwithstanding the success which has marked the educational efforts of the past twenty-eight years. Without entering into the question whether in the absence of compulsory clauses in the Education Act of 1870 adequate provision would have been made for elementary education, as provision has been made more or less adequately for secondary and higher education, it may safely be taken for granted that the general awakening of the people, which made compulsion possible and enabled it to be embodied in the Act, would have given a great impetus to popular instruction as soon as the necessary machinery was provided, even in the absence of compulsory powers. It is a mistake to presume, as the advocates of force so often presume, that the results obtained by compulsion would not have been obtained if the people had been left in a state of freedom. Compulsion is a short method that does away with the necessity for argument and for less violent measures, but its quick results are often purchased at great cost. Some of the best friends of popular instruction contend, with greater show of reason than their opponents are willing to concede, that many of the most difficult problems in the education of the people have been obscured and delayed, instead of being settled, by the compulsory powers obtained in 1870. It is perhaps well to say that more permanent harm has been done, probably, by the way compulsion has been enforced than by compulsion itself. The great bulk of the industrial people of this country are not only not averse to education but are eager to obtain it, and a great injustice was done both to the people and to the cause of education when the compulsory powers of the Act were applied indiscriminately and without regard to the widely varying circumstances of those who were brought under the law.

In centres of large population, where every section of the people is numbered by thousands, and where individual influences are too weak and too remote to affect local governing bodies, School Boards can not only act without regard to the individual, but can easily make separate provision for every kind of case is represented by considerable numbers. Even if there were no other reasons for separate treatment than the convenience of those who have to administer the Education Acts or to work under them, London and many other places would provide specially for the blind, for the truant, for the mentally deficient, for the physically unclean, or for any other class of children whose inclusion with the rank and file of ordinary children might tend to prevent the smooth and efficient working of the educational machine if those classes were forced into the elementary schools with average children. This is what has to be done all over the country where the population is not large enough for the sub-divisions of children into sections and for special local provision to meet their requirements.

Almost daily, proceedings in the police courts reveal the fact that even in London, where the compulsory system is most capable of being easily enforced, children are allowed to grow up in ignorance under horrible, physical, and immoral conditions. What should be more or less the concern of the whole community has sunk into being the ordinary work of an official, who finds in this as in other departments of public life that the less disturbance he makes the better he is liked and the more satisfaction he gives to his employers. It is often only because of disasters in families that it is discovered the children are growing up in ignorance, notwithstanding the elaborate educational machinery which is supposed to sweep them unfailingly into the appropriate schools.

In small towns and rural districts there is often no genuine attempt made to steadily enforce the compulsory powers of the Acts in the very cases which it is most desirable should be reached—the cases which, until they are effectively reached, will indicate failure of the most complete description, notwithstanding the admittedly great work that has been done towards providing those who are in no need of compulsion with the means of instruction. Nor can it be said that these difficult cases are so few that they do not materially interfere with the success of the Act, for they often consist of almost the whole of the children who it is alleged would have been allowed to grow up in ignorance if the measure of 1870 had never been passed. Take the case of all towns of ten or fifteen thousand inhabitants and under. If the "verminous" or vicious children in those communities are sternly forced into the elementary schools then there is something like open revolt on the part of the

parents of those who are clean and well trained, and it becomes so difficult to secure attendance on the part of those who do not require compulsion that the hopeless cases are left practically unmolested. This is known to be so by all who have taken interest in elementary education. Special provision for special cases is impossible in small towns and rural districts, and the only children who would really benefit by compulsory attendance are not compelled to attend, while the parents of those who for some valid reason are unable to attend are promptly served with notices. In some districts a more than usually active attendance officer zealously does his duty and brings negligent parents time after time before the magistrates. In the end the unoffending husband and father, who probably has the sympathy of the whole community, goes to prison because he will not or cannot pay the fines, and his family become paupers and have to be maintained out of the rates during his imprisonment, and perhaps for a long time afterwards. This quite common consequence of compulsion brings about a state of irritated public feeling that finally results in the attendance officer and the Board winking at neglect, and only those children go to school who would probably have gone, after schools had been provided for them, if compulsion had never been made the law of the land.

There are thousands of cases all over the country in which families are so destitute that the children are practically naked, and it is quite useless to insist upon their going to school unless somebody is prepared to clothe and feed them. In regard to truant children there were in the seventies and early eighties determined efforts made to force them into regular attendance, but half-a-dozen boys of this class were sufficient to demoralize a small school and the teachers were not anxious to see them. Besides, parents declared their inability to take their children to school every day, and were quite willing if needs be to go to prison, or to see their children sent to training ships, and therefore it became the custom far more generally than is supposed for the difficult residuum to be left alone, and it is left alone with greater ill results than are realized by those who complacently think that the last word has been said on elementery education in this country.

The failure of the Elementary Education Acts is so great not only in reference to the operation of its compulsory provisions, but in reference to the actual work of tuition, that if it were not for fear of increased local rates something would certainly be done to provide in each county the schools required in order that every child, however neglected, or afflicted, or vicious, could be dealt with in ways which are now utterly impossible except in centres of large population. Of course

far more is wanted than a mere addition to the number of schools. The teaching itself fails to develop the mental powers of the children, because the classes are too large and the teachers have to contend with too many degrees of intelligence and too many grades of knowledge in the same class. Just as the schools themselves do not provide for all classes of scholars, the teaching does not provide for all the grades of intelligence and knowledge. The children are lumped together in ways that may be inevitable in the present state of public opinion, but it is worse than foolish to take for granted that elementary education in the country is on a satisfactory footing or is making satisfactory progress.

The provision required in additional buildings, teachers, and appliances can only be provided by county authorities, if the charge ought not to be mainly imperial. It is certain that the great cost of making elementary instruction efficient would have to be made out of other than local funds. The School Board rate in poor and thinly populated districts is so heavy a burden that the Acts are foredoomed to failure. It is quite impossible to convey a true conception of the poverty of many schools and of the inefficiency of many of the teachers, to say nothing of the still larger number who are greatly overworked and shamefully underpaid.

So complete is the unfounded belief in the efficiency of the elementary instruction given to the people that any suggestion of failure is in danger of being summarily dismissed without due consideration. One reason for failure is found in the long hours during which children are daily kept at school. Five hours a day is far too long to confine the bodies and strain the minds of children. If the hours were shortened and the whole system of daily instruction were changed, something might be done towards removing the defects which now prevent the Education Acts from achieving the objects they were intended to achieve. If schools were open in the morning from from nine to twelve for children who will not attend voluntarily, and for special classes of children, such as the mentally deficient, truants, the destitute, &c., they could be dealt with in the main in the present buildings and by the present teachers who could relieve each other. In the afternoon from two until half-past four the schools should be open for those who attend willingly and regularly. The progress made would be more rapid than at present, as the intractable pupils would not be present. Parents would have provided for them an incentive which is now absent, and the children would be stimulated to exertion and good behaviour as it is impossible for them to be stimulated under the present mixed and dreary system. In the evening, for an hour or an hour and half, some of

the schools should be opened as continuation schools for former pupils who have gone to work. The number of these pupils would be comparatively small and the teachers would be drawn from those who had not taught in both morning and afternoon school. It is clear that the morning and evening attendances would not be large, as the number of children who are not fit for any cause to mix with the bulk are comparatively few in number, while those who have gone to work and have to be provided for in evening classes are less difficult to deal with although they may be more numerous. A plan of this kind would meet many objections and get rid of many defaulters that now cause worry to teachers and bring about friction between parents and the school authorities. The teachers would have more time to themselves. The schools would be devoted at different times to quite different classes of pupils. Parents who do not require to be forced to send their children to school would be relieved from what are looked upon as offensive visits, and the lower class of children would have placed before them an object to which their ambition might be directed. A further and still more important end would be gained, namely, that the destitute and neglected children in each town and village of the land might then be got at and dealt with, as they certainly never can be dealt with in small towns and rural districts as long as they have to be forced into the schools during ordinary school hours at the risk of filth and disease being transferred to clean and healthy children, and against the wishes of the majority of the people.

Further, after twenty-eight years' experience it is now perfectly well known that a certain and somewhat large percentage of children will never pass the standards, during any period that it is possible to keep them at school, and it is doubtful whether they do not lose more than they gain by being kept from work which they prefer, to toil at what appears to them to be the drudgery of learning. It is more than doubtful whether it is worth while, either in the interests of the community or in the interests of the children themselves, to force them to attend school until they thoroughly hate everything connected with education and are resolved when once freed from the detested tasks never to open a book again as long as they live. This is not a result that is worth striving for, and as there is no danger of these children becoming a danger to the State, it is difficult to see what object is gained in keeping them at school. They will soon forget the knowledge forced upon them, and there is plenty of work in the world for those who are only fit to do work that requires neither keen intellect nor considerable book learning.

The great hardship inflicted upon many poor people by the pro-

tracted period during which attendance at school is enforced is far greater than is realized by those who have the means to provide servants, and who have no means of understanding how very difficult it is for the poor who have large families to make both ends meet. Hundreds of thousands of the poor seldom have enough to eat and are rarely sufficiently clothed. The abolition of school fees has reduced the hardship previously borne uncomplainingly by the poor, who do not know why they should be so harried by those above them simply because they have large families and are poor, and if the compulsory time for attendance were shortened and the Act were made to reach those who now evade it without pressing unduly upon those for whom it is not necessary, another very real grievance would be removed. Up to the present time the Act has failed to reach those who are not amenable to public opinion, while it has made the lives of many poor children, sad enough already, a dreary round of hopeless and unintelligible toil, especially for girls who have to go from housework to school and from school to housework, under conditions that recognize no early closing and no weekly half holiday. After all these years it can scarcely be contended that the dubious advantages of a School Board education compensate the poor for all that they have had to bear in order to get it.

It may reasonably be contended that any relaxation of the compulsory powers would tell injuriously, but this is doubtful. What is being contended for, however, is not that compulsion should be relaxed, but that it should only apply to those who need it, and that greater efforts should be made to cultivate voluntary and willing attendance. There are reasons for believing that with increased inducements to good attendance much of the failure that now marks elementary instruction might be got rid of. In many parts of the country elementary schools are dirty, bare, and cheerless as prisons. The fact should never be forgotten that the compulsory attendance of scholars tends to deteriorate school boards, managers, and teachers, to say nothing of the fact that whatever is forced upon the people is less valued by them than if it were obtained under free conditions. As at present administered, it cannot be said that the compulsory clauses of the Education Acts are altogether inoperative, but when they are enforced in small towns and rural districts where the bulk of the population of the country reside, they tend to drive the children of the respectable poor into inefficient private adventure schools in England and into the newly established Intermediate Schools of Wales. It is impossible to avoid the conclusion that, except in centres of large population, the elementary system of education still needs drastic treatment.

THE SPELLING OF GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES.

The Royal Geographical Society of London long ago established a series of rules for the spelling and pronuciation of geographical place names. These rules are, in their essentials, now accepted by the United States Government, and hence the need of every teacher having the rules for ready reference. The Editors, therefore, take pleasure in giving below the rules as stated by Dr. Mill in his recent book: "Hints to Teachers and Students on the Choice of Geopraphical Books for Reference and Reading."

RULES FOR SPELLING.

1. No change is made in the orthography of foreign names in countries which use Roman letters: Thus Spanish, Portugese, Dutch, etc., names will be spelt as by the respective nations.

2. Neither is change made in the spelling of such names in languages which are not written in Roman characters as have become familar by long usage to English readers: Thus Calcutta, Cutch, Celebes, Mecca, etc., will be retained in their present form.

3. The true sound of the word as locally pronounced will be taken as the basis of spelling.

4. An approximation, however, to the sound is alone aimed at. A system which would attempt to represent the more delicate inflexions of sound and accent would be so complicated as only to defeat itself. Those who desire a more accurate pronunciation of the written name must learn it on the spot by a study of local accent and peculiarities.

5. *The broad features of the system* are:

(*a*) That vowels are pronounced as in Italian, and consonants as in English.

(*b*) Every letter is pronounced, and no redundant letters are introduced. When two vowels come together, each one is sounded, though the result, when spoken quickly, is sometimes scarcely to be distinguished from a single sound, as in *ai*, *au*, *ei*.

(*c*) One accent only is used, the acute, to denote the syllable on which stress is laid. This is very important, as the sounds of many names are entirely altered by the misplacement of this "stress."

6. Indian names are accepted as spelt in Hunter's *Gazetteer of India*, 1881.

7. In the case of native names in countries under the dominion of other European Powers in whose maps, charts, etc., the spelling is given according to the system adopted by that Power, such orthography should be, as a rule, disregarded, and the names spelt according to the British system, in order that the proper pronunciation may be approximately known. Exceptions should be in cases where the spelling has become by custom fixed, and occasionally it may be desirable to give both forms.

8. Generic geographical terms, *e.g.*, those for island, river, mountain, etc., should be, as a rule, given in the native from. In the case of European countries, translation into English, where this has been the custom, should be retained, *e.g.*, Cape Ortegal, not Cabo Ortegal, River Seine, not Fleuve Seine.

PRONUNCIATION.

Letters.	Pronunciation and Remarks.	Examples.
a	*ah*, *a* as in father	Java, Banána, Somâli, Bari.
e	*eh*, *a* as in *fate*	Tel-el-Kebír, Oléleh, Yezo, Medina, Levúka, Peru.
i	English *e*; *i* as in *ravine*; the sound of *ee* in *beet*. Thus, not *Feejee*, but	Fiji, Hindi.
o	*o* as in mote	Tokyo.
u	long *u* as in *flute*; the sound of *oo* in boot. *oo* or *ou* should never be employed for this sound ... ... Thus, not *Zooloo*, but ...	Zulu, Sumatra.
	All vowels are shortened in sound by doubling the following consonant	Yarra, Tanna, Mecca, Jidda, Bonny.*
	Doubling of a vowel is only necessary where there is a distinct repetition of the single sound	Nuulúa, Oosima.
ai	as in *aisle*, or English *i* as in *ice*	Shanghai.
au	*ow* as in *how* ... ... Thus, not *Foochow*, but.	Fuchau.
ao	is slightly different from above	Macao.
aw	when followed by a consonant or at the end of a word, as in *law*	Cawnpore.

* The *y* is retained as a terminal in this word under Rule 2 above. The word is given as a familiar example of the alteration in sound caused by the second consonant.

Letters.	Pronunciation and Remarks.	Examples.
ei	is the sound of the two Italian vowels, but is frequently slurred over, when it is scarcely to be distinguished from *ei* in the English *eight* or *ey* in the English *they*	Beirút, Beilùl.
b	English *b*.	
c	is always soft, but is so nearly the sound of *s* that it should be seldom used	Celébes.
	If *Celebes* were not already recognised it would be written *Selebes*.	
ch	is always soft as in *church*	Chingchiñ.
d	English *d*.	
f	English *f*. *ph* should not be used for the sound of *f*. Thus, not *Haiphong*, but	Haifong, Nafa.
g	is always hard. (Soft *g* is given by *j*) ...	Galápagos.
h	is always pronounced when inserted.	
hw	as in *what*; better rendered by *hw*. than *wh*, or *h* followed by a vowel, thus *Hwang ho*, not *Whang ho*, or *Hoango ho*	Hwang ho, Ngan Hwi.
j	English *j*. *Dj* should never be put for this sound	Japan, Jinchuen.
k	English *k*. It should always be put for the hard *c*. Thus, not *Corea*, but	Korea.
kh	The Oriental gutteral (the German and Scot *ch*)	Khan.
gh	is another gutteral, as in the Turkish ...	Dagh, Ghazi.
l, m, n	As in English.	
ng	has two separate sounds, the one hard as in the English word *finger*, the other as in *singer*. As these two sounds are rarely employed in the same locality, no attempt is made to distinguish between them.	
p	As in English.	
ph	As in *loophole*	Chemulpho, Mokpho.
th	stands both for its sound in *thing*, and as in *this*. The former is most common ...	Bethlehem.
q	should never be employed; *qu* (in *quiver*) is given as *kw*	Kwangtung.
	When *qu* has the sound of *k* as in *quoit*, it should be given by *k*.	

LETTERS.	PRONUNCIATION AND REMARKS.	EXAMPLES.
r s sh t v w x	As in English	Sawákin.
y	is always a consonant, as in *yard*, and therefore should never be used as a terminal, *i* or *e* being substituted as the sound may require. Thus, not	Kikúyu.
	Mikindány, *wady*, but	Mikindáni, wadi.
	not *Kwaly*, but	Kwale.
z	English *z*	Zulu.
zh	The French *j* or as *s* in *treasure*	Muzhdaha.
	Accents should not generally be used, but where there is a very decided emphatic syllable or stress, which affects the sound of the word, it should be marked by an *acute* accent—*Journal of School Geography.*	Tongatábu, Galàpagos, Paláwan, Saráwak.

EDUCATION AND CRIME.

By Owen E. Roberts.

Mr. Owen E. Roberts, of Manchester, read a paper on "The Influence of Education upon the Diminution of Crime." Unquestionably, he said, this is a most important subject. The cry of extravagance is continually raised by those who are opposed to a forward movement in educational matters, and who look upon public money expended upon education as so much expended upon luxuries not necessary to the well-being of the population; . . who think that by equipping the masses with higher elementary education we are positively creating a class of indolent, lazy individuals, who will never be satisfied with the . . lowly circle in which they have moved; and that we are overcrowding the ranks of other branches of labour with men who should be relegated to the ranks of manual labour. Labour of all kinds is honourable, but we have no right to determine the destinies of men. . . . To withhold from any section of society desirous of rising the elements necessary to their mental growth and activity is as criminal as to withhold light, air, and the elements necessary to the growth of our physical life—it is not our province

to discuss this further, but to endeavour to show that since the passing of the Education Act of 1870 there has been a steady growth in our public morality, and that crime has decreased, notwithstanding a growth in population. . . . There are at least three opposing forces at work against the influence of education: the forces of (1) Heredity; (2) Home environment; (3) General environment. Heredity opposed to education is the inherited low animal propensities transmitted from parents to children. . . . The class to which I refer revel in the old adage, "Where ignorance is bliss 'tis folly to be wise." . . I need not particularise to a body of men brought into contact daily with such characters. They are self-apparent to the attendance officer with an eye to see; and although the growth of education is leavening the masses it is a slow progress to drive the savage hordes of drink, profanity, and vice out of territory long occupied. . . . In our present system of education, imperfect as it is, we have powers at work in our elementary schools that are teaching the young of this country that by the development of their higher faculties and not their lower passions the highest form of happiness is attainable. This our education does by bringing into play moral, intellectual, and emotional, faculties which had hitherto through hereditary influence lain dormant. Besides the influence of heredity, the home influences have often to be combated. The home influence is the reflection of the parental character. When the hereditary influences tend in the direction of morality and intellectual development the home surroundings participate and become a pure atmosphere for the child-life to breathe. On the other hand degenerate parental character sinks the home to the lowest level. . . . Frœbel and others have inaugurated a system whereby the child may starve to death the evil propensities by cultivating their opposites. . . . Another influence is the general environment. By this I mean the districts in which children are reared. . . . The happiest moments of a great proportion of our children are spent within the walls of our schools, where truth, love, virtue and cleanliness are inculcated. Great responsibility rests upon our municipalities in connection with the sanitary surroundings of the lower classes. There are neighbourhoods that are productive of nought but immorality. The environment is such that it germinates evil by absence of light, air, and general sanitation; and to allow such neighbourhoods to exist is positively criminal. Our municipalities should rise to the occasion and make the surroundings of the poor healthier, therefore brighter and happier, and thereby become co-workers with education in bringing about a happier condition of things. Education has had to contend with these forces, how has it acquitted itself? . . . Crime must decrease where moral

and educational forces are predominating, and the statistics recently published prove this.

In 1860, we had convicts in our prisons numbering 7,699; in 1894, 4,771; although the population has grown from twenty millions to thirty millions.

In 1870, we had elementary schools numbering 8,280, with 1,693,000 scholars on the registers; in the same year we had 135 prisons, containing 29,050 prisoners.

In 1895, with a growth of population of over 7,000,000, we had elementary schools, numbering 19,739, with 5,299,000 scholars on the registers; in the same year we have 66 prisons, and the following is the comparison in the numbers of known thieves:—In 1870, at large, 50,144; in prison, 31,225; total, 81,215; in 1895, at large, 18,033; in prison, 18,395; total, 36,498.

Money expended on education is money well spent. England does not think so to-day but America does. Massachusetts State expends £7 7*s.* 0*d.* per annum on each child. The average for the United States is £3*s.* 15*s.* 0*d.* per child. England and Wales the average is £2 11*s.* 11½*d.*

England spent on her army and navy, from 1876 to 1896, £590,988,713; on education for the same period, £169,159,699, including loans, endowments, and Government grants.

Diminution in crime is most visible in the class of population affected by the Education Act, 1870. The results have been satisfactory, but there is still room for improvement, and a more rigid administration of the compulsory clauses should be insisted upon, in the interests of public morality, as is proved by the statistics read. No child should be allowed to leave school until educationally equipped for the battle of life. Child labour under fourteen should be abolished, it being positively harmful to the physique of the child to be cooped up in our mills and factories. National education should be the order of the day, and should not be the battle-ground of political partisanship; education should rise higher than party. The bridge connecting us with the ignorance of the past is burnt. We must go forward, and woe be to the nation that hands to her children the inheritance of ignorance, and transmits to posterity the germs and condititions of criminality. "Retribution," as Thomas Carlyle says, "may be travelling slowly along a circuitous path, but, nevertheless sure is it of arriving at its destination."—*School Board Chronicle.*

A COURSE OF STUDY IN THE PEDAGOGY OF HERBART.

(Arranged by the National Herbart Society.)

The following carefully-planned Course of Study in Herbart's Pedagogy is designed for those teachers who wish to make a regular study of this subject. It contains in a natural and systematic order the outline of the chief doctrines of this school, with definite references by chapter and page to the leading books in English :—

1. The Biography of Herbart.—Chapter II. of DeGarmo's Herbart and the Herbartians. Felkin's Science of Education (Herbart), Introduction by the Translators, pp. 1-23.

2. Most writers on Herbart, both in Germany and in this country, divide the work into three parts : (1) The psychology of Herbart. (2) His ethics. (3) His pedagogy. The reason for this is the distinct purpose in Herbart to give pedagogy a scientific form by basing it upon psychology and ethics.

3. The Psychology of Herbart.—A full and clear exposition of this topic is found in Felkin's Chapter I. of his Introduction to the Science and Practice of Education, pp. 1 to 53. See also Chapter III. of DeGarmo's Herbart and the Herbartians, pp. 23-46. Also Ufer's Part I. of the Pedagogy of Herbart, pp. 1-33.

4. The Ethics of Herbart.—Felkin's Introduction, Chapter II., pp. 54-79; DeGarmo's Herbart and the Herbartians, Chapter IV., pp. 47-56; Ufer's Pedagogy of Herbart, Part II., pp. 34-53.

5. The Aim of Education and Educative Instruction.—Science of Education (Herbart). Translated by Felkin, pp. 78-121. Introduction to Herbart, Felkin, Chapter III., pp. 80-90. Third Year Book. Moral Education, by John Dewey, Charles DeGarmo, William T. Harris, and John Adams.

6. The Doctrine of Interest.—Introduction to Herbart by Felkin, Chapter III., pp. 90-103. The Science of Education, by Herbart. Second Book, pp. 122-199. Herbart and the Herbartians, DeGarmo, Chapter V., pp. 56-67. Interest as Related to Will, Second Supplement to First Year Book, John Dewey.

7. The Doctrine of Apperception. Lange's Apperception, translated by the Herbart Club. DeGarmo's Herbart and the Herbartians, Chapter VII., pp. 166-179.

8. Correlation.—Herbart and the Herbartians, Chapter IV.,

pp. 113-129, Chapter IV., p. 240. First Year Book, Concentration, Frank McMurry. Second Year Book, E. E. White, with reply to the same.

9. The Culture-Epochs Theory.—Introduction to Herbart. Felkin, Chapter III., pp. 121-145. First Year Book, C. C. Van Liew. Second Year Book, Herbart and the Herbartians, DeGarmo, Chapter III., pp. 107-112. Lange's Apperception, pp. 110-127.

10. The Method of Instruction. The Formal Steps.—Herbart and the Herbartians, Chapter V., pp., 130-140. Ufer's Pedagogy of Herbart, pp. 81-91. Introduction to Herbart, Felkin, Chapter III., pp. 105-120. The Essentials of Method, DeGarmo.

11. Government and Discipline.—Moral Character. Introduction to Herbart, Felkin, Chapter IV., pp. 155-175. The Science of Education by Herbart (Felkin). Third Book, pp. 200-268.

Distinguish between the two books (1) Introduction to the Science and Practice of Education, and (2) The Science of Education. The former is a much simpler and easier introduction to Herbart. The latter is a translation of Herbart. Both books are by Mr. and Mrs. Felkin.

LIST OF BOOKS ABOVE REFERRED TO.

1. Introduction to the Science and Practice of Education, by Herbart. Translated by Henry M. and Emmie Felkin. Published by D. C. Heath and Co.

2. Herbart and the Herbartians, by DeGarmo. Scribners.

3. Science of Education, by Herbart (translated by Felkin). D. C. Heath.

4. Lange's Apperception. D. C. Heath.

5. Ufer's Pedagogy of Herbart (Zinser). D. C. Heath.

6. The Year Books of the National Herbart Society.

Journal of Education (Boston and Chicago.)

REVIEWS OF BOOKS.

EXPERIMENTAL PHYSICS, by G. H. Wyatt, B. Sc., A.R.C.Sc. (*Rivingtons*).

This little book is intended to enable the student to discover for himself the fundamental laws of Dynamics. The author carefully refrains from making a positive statement throughout. The course adopted is to describe an experiment, to instruct the student how to tabulate his results or exhibit them in a graphic form, and then to ask

what his conclusion is. If the required conclusion is one at which the student cannot be expected to arrive without assistance, a leading question is asked. By this means the principles of the composition and resolution of forces, the properties of the centre of gravity, the laws of friction, the principles of the lever, pulley, and inclined plane, are taught. Some knowledge of the pendulum, acceleration, and momentum is also imparted. The student is first told how to make a dynamometer and a protractor. All other apparatus required (with the exception of a balance and an Atwood's Machine) can easily be made by any carpenter at a nominal expense. There is no doubt that the knowledge acquired by the methods of Mr. Wyatt will be much more solid than that of a mere book student. The experiments are well and carefully devised, and should form an interesting and useful exercise to any one who is likely to be called upon to perform experiments, or to investigate natural laws in the future. In India, however, the thought of introducing such a book as this to students cannot but recall Riversides Dweller's Professor of Bacteriology, to whom the students complained "you make us experiment for two hours to learn what you could tell us in five minutes." Mr. Wyatt does not distinguish between weight and mass. We are unfortunately accustomed to encounter the phrase "a force of 10 grains" in a work on statics, but it is rather startling to be told to call "the product of the weight of the ball by its velocity the momentum of the ball."

EXAMPLES IN ANALYTICAL CONICS FOR BEGINNERS, by W. M. Baker, M.A. (*George Bell and Sons*).

This book contains over 1000 questions on co-ordinate geometry, some 220 of which are on "book-work." Most, if not all, of the examples are very easy, many of them requiring only the substitution of numerical values in general formulæ for their solution. The author remarks, with justice, that the commonly used text-books on the subject do not contain enough examples of quite an elementary character, but it may be doubted whether he has not gone to the opposite extreme. No student could, with advantage, work 160 examples on the straight line, the last, and presumably the hardest, of which is to find the co-ordinates of the orthocentre of a triangle the equations of whose sides are given. The fault, however, if it is one, is a fault on the right side, and if it is understood that the solution of such questions is only intended to lead up to that of more difficult ones, the book should prove useful to our B.A. Classes, especially to the members of them who have not a decided taste for mathematics. They would find it excellent practice to regard

the last five sections which consist of "book-work" questions as examination papers, and answer them in writing. Such an exercise, if done carefully, would obviate much of the slip-shod work with which every teacher is so familiar.

THE LIFE AND LETTERS OF ADMIRAL DUNCAN. By the Earl of Camperdown. (*Longmans.*)

This book brings before us a British sailor of a type which we would wish to see long perpetuated—resolute, fearless, honest and true, who in a time of great national peril both at home and abroad rescued England from all fear of a Franco-Dutch invasion. We are carried back to the picturesque—if not 'good old' times of pressgangs, pig-tails and wooden three-deckers, when naval engagements must have been mere child's play compared to conflicts between our modern iron-boxes filled with all the latest inventions of science for the wholesale destruction of human life. It is to be regretted that so little is known of the personal history of Admiral Duncan, who seems to have been one of those many heroes of the stirring times of Napoleon whose fame has been obscured by the greater exploits of Nelson, and yet it was the example set by Duncan at Camperdown in 1797, of boldly breaking the enemy's line in the van and in the rear, contrary to the conventional methods of naval manœuvres, that was followed with such signal success by Nelson at Trafalgar, eight years afterwards, and this was acknowledged by Nelson himself. The difficulties which Admiral Duncan had to encounter in 1797 seemed almost insurmountable. There were very few ships available for the North Sea Fleet, and some of those were unseaworthy. A few ships had been lent by Russia, but before they were of any use they were recalled. Then, again, the serious mutinies at the Nore and Spithead left the Admiral with only two ships to blockade the entrance of the Texel. Add to this, the increasing dread of Napoleon who, in 1796, had carried all before him in Italy, and we shall be able to appreciate the pluck and cool daring of our hero, who for nineteen weeks kept a Dutch fleet of sixteen ships of the line locked up in the Texel with only two ships with him, making the Dutch believe that his whole fleet was near at hand. And then when the mutiny had been quelled, largely by his personal influence, and he was joined by the fleet, he lured the Dutch fleet out and fell upon them five miles from their own coast, with a strong wind blowing in shore, and completely defeated them. It was a risky thing to do, but, in war, success justifies the greatest risks. The victoy of Camperdown saved our shores from invasion, broke the prestige of the Dutch naval power, and nerved our sailors to attack and destroy

the combined fleets of France and Spain at Trafalgar. The deep sense of relief and consciousness of reviving power created in the country by the battle of Camperdown gave confidence to the nation to meet Napoleon in the long struggle by sea and land which terminated in Waterloo.

A fuller explanation of the plan given of the battle would have been a useful addition to the book. The number of letters from the Admiralty, given *in extenso*, might well have been curtailed. We only get peeps, as it were, at the Admiral from the official letters he received, for very few of his own letters seem to have been preserved. But the book on the whole forms a valuable addition to naval history.

THE LATER RENAISSANCE. By David Hannay: (*William Blackwood and Sons.*) 5*s. net.*

Thanks to the enterprise of rival publishers and the ready pen of versatile writers, we have just now two series of books on the literatures of the world. One series is under the editorship of Mr. Edmund Gosse and the other under that of Mr. George Saintsbury. In the one case the division of world-literatures is geographical or linguistic, in the other chronological. Each plan has its convenience. Every literature forms an organic whole and there is an interest in tracing its origin and development and if need be its decay. Again, every period has a character, a physiognomy which is reflected more or less faithfully in the different literatures then flourishing. If in the first series of books we expect to have writers present to us what form the characteristic traits of individual literatures, in the second we seek to have exhibited to us the various ways in which the *Zeitgeist* impresses itself on that most unmistakable product of a nation, *i.e.*, its literature. There is such an attractiveness in this comprehensive width of view that critics have often wished that books were written in the present day and in the light of fuller knowledge to deal with the literatures of the world, as Hallam's History tried to deal with European literature for three centuries. The late Matthew Arnold's words, that Europe should be regarded "for intellectual and spiritual purposes as one great confederation, bound to a joint action and working to a common result" give the spirit in which the work of the careful survey of the different periods of European literature has been undertaken. We may mention that the late Sir John Seeley would have warmly welcomed such an undertaking. In an interesting lecture of his, he expressed the wish that Englishmen would give up the narrow, insular way they had of looking at literature, and that the relations between the writers in

different languages as those between Thackeray and Honore de Balzac, between Dickens and Alphonse Daudet would be brought out. Such manuals as those now being published under the able editorship of the Edinburgh Professor of Literature seem to be precisely adapted to fulfil the purposes referred to by Mr. Seeley.

Coming to Mr. David Hannay's Manual on the 'Later Renaissance' we shall examine how far the above-mentioned features which should characterise such *aperçus* of particular periods of European literature are delineated and brought into special prominence. If we omit the last chapter, we find that the book naturally divides into Chapters I-VI dealing with Spanish Literature, Chapters VII-IX dealing with English Elizabethan Literature, Chapters X and XI dealing with French and Chapter XII with Italian Literature of the period. For all practical purposes the book looks like a hash formed of portions of different literatures. The organic unity resulting from a single informing purpose is lacking. Perhaps the tendency of such surveys to break up into loosely jointed pictures of different literatures is inevitable, and equally inevitable perhaps is the tendency of a history of literature to degenerate into a number of biographies more or less *décousues*. Possibly we are too unjust to Mr. Hannay. He does stop to inform us now and then how this and that and that other writer has been influenced by the Renaissance. But we should gladly have welcomed a little more of bread to the intolerable deal of sack.

But enough of fault finding. We have nothing but praise for the marvellous compression of the narrative, when we consider what wealth of material the author has had to deal with. Though he is candid enough to confess that he has not had the hardihood to get through all the works of Lope de Vega, yet the book gives us the impression that Mr. Hannay has not made the book by reading up the authorities on the subject, but has tried to give us his own independent judgments on the several writers.

For instance, he does not too implicitly defer to Schlegel's opinion of Calderon, as Sismondi does in his 'Literature of Modern Europe,' nor is he carried to the opposite extreme of belittling that most national of Spanish dramatists as G. H. Lewes does. The glamour which invests the memory of Giordano Bruno because of his long anti-clerical struggle terminated by martyrdom, does not blind Mr. Hannay to his shortcomings as an author. An Englishman glorying in the deeds of the heroes that made Britain what it is, he yet can bring himself to express his opinion on Shakspeare's ideal king (if we are to believe certain critics) thus: "In the tavern, in the Council Chamber, on the battlefield, by the sick bed of his father, he is always the same Henry

of Monmouth, a foundation of cold able selfishness, a surface of valour and showy magnanimity which costs him nothing—a perfect portrait of the 'unconscious hypocrite.'"

Though Mr. Hannay was bound to deal with the literature of the whole of Europe, yet, fortunately for him, Germany had, at this period, one of her spells of silence, as her attention was engrossed by the religious struggle between the Catholics and the Protestants. The peace of Augsburg about the beginning of the half century, and Rudolf's Protestant persecution about its end, typify in some manner the work of Germany during the period. Among the smaller peoples there was hardly enough of literary output for appraisal. In Italy the impulse of the Renaissance was earlier felt, and the best literary work was achieved before the second half of the century. The work of Tasso and Bruno and Guarini represents only the ebb of a mighty tide.

France has something better to show by way of literary achievement in the same period. Poetry is represented by the work of the Pleiade school, and Prose, if we except the work of Montaigne, consists chiefly of memoirs. The chief of the school Ronsard has a double character. As Mr. Hannay says, Ronsard, the author of 'Mignonne allons voir si la Rose' and 'Quand tu seras bien vieille', is likelier to live longer than Ronsard the Pindarique, though it is probable enough that the writer himself set special store by the reform he attempted in poetic style. His poetic achievement is thus described by Mr. Hannay. 'He did for France what Surrey and Wyatt began, and Spenser and Sidney completed for us, what the Spanish poets of the school of Boscan and Garcilaso attempted for Castilian.' Montaigne as the father of 'the Essay' receives his due praise, and Brantome as reflecting the French love of showy action and indifference to morality and 'ce vieux renard de Monluc' and the fiery Huguenot D'Aubigné are all happily characterised.

The survey of English Poetry begins with Spenser,—that true child of the Renaissance movement, reflecting so faithfully its love of beauty, its desire for joy, and the melancholy consequent on cherishing unattainable ideals,—and ends with Shakspeare's historic plays and the Satirists. We have heard often enough of the cramping nature of the unities, and how the genius of Shakspeare broke through the hide-bound classic conventions and effected the liberation of the drama. Mr. Hannay has something fresh to say on the subject: 'We have had a freer Shakspeare and a more spontaneous Lope than would have been possible if the three unities and the complete separation of tragedy from comedy had been accepted in the two countries. It is not to be taken for granted that the choice lay between freedom and convention. It was rather between

one convention and another. The Spanish stage is not unconventional. It has a different convention from the French—that is all. Ours made its own rules less precise than the Spanish or Classical, but none the less real." ....The author has some very suggestive remarks on the difference between the Classic, the Spanish and the French drama, and what he says about the unity of the English play is a penetrating piece of criticism.

As there is nothing very distinctive in the sketch of the prose writers of the period, that need not detain us. We have reserved to the last the author's account of Spanish Literature though it occupies the first place in the order of treatment. Mr. Hannay is admittedly an authority on Spanish Literature, and there cannot be a more informing guide for the study of the Literature of Spain than the writer. The extraordinary outburst of literary activity in Spain in the 16th century and its subsequent decay remind us of the fabled efflorescence of the cactus which is said to burst into flower once in a hundred years and then die. There were much the same causes at work to bring about the rise of the Elizabethan Literature in England and the Spanish Literature in the 16th century. Both England and Spain shared in the maritime activity which followed the discovery of the New World. If England rejoiced in the defeat of the Armada, earlier in Spain the Moor had been driven away from Granada and national unity had been effected. Again, in the matter of religious zeal, the Spaniards were not behindhand: they were as earnest in striving against the new heresy as Englishmen were in embracing it. These are the most obvious of the causes that created the great ferment which resulted in the creation of the dramas of Lope de Vega and Calderon, of the picareque and chivalrous romances. We do not propose to go through this portion of the writer's work with any minuteness proportioned to the importance of the subject. We shall content ourselves with calling the attention of our readers to one or two points, and close this review which has become already a little too long. Calderon suffered much from the piracy of his plays. In a letter sent to the Duke of Veragua he says that there were two noted pests of the Madrid theatre, one known as Great, and the other as Little Memory. The first could remember a whole play after hearing it once (What a treasure of a reporter was lost in him!), the other after hearing it two or three times, and the two gained a dishonourable livelihood by catering for piratical managers. We have heard that in the court of King Bhoja there were three men who played similar tricks on poets that came to benefit by the patronage of the king. These men used to beset the gates of the palace and ask the new-comers to recite their

verses. Before the recitation would be over they used to prepare between them manuscripts containing the very pieces of composition, make them look old enough and come down upon the unsuspecting new-comers as men attempting to palm off old things for new. The story says that in Kalidasa the three met their match and that they were exposed. Both the stories look like myths, and Mr. Andrew Lang is welcome to make what he can of them. Of Don Quixote and his immortal companion Mr. Hannay says: "These two characters are types of immortal truth—the one a gentleman, brave, human, courteous, of good faculty, for whom a slight madness has made the whole world fantastic; the other an average human being, selfish, not over brave, though no mere coward and ignorant, yet not unkindly, nor incapable of loyalty, and withal shrewd in what his limited vision can see when he is not blinded by his greed. The continual collisions of these two with the real world make the story of *Don Quixote*." In the midst of the many-coloured life of Spain is 'honest greedy Sancho with his peering eyes, so shrewd and withal so capable of folly, the critic and also the dupe of the half-crazed dreamer, by whom he rides and will ride, as long as humanity endures, in this book, and under every varying outward form in the real earth. As for Don Quixote is he not the elder brother of Sir Roger de Coverly, of Matthew Bramble, of Parson Adams, of Bradwardine, of Colonel Newcome and Mr. Chucks, the brave, gentle, not over-clever men we love all the more because we laugh at them very tenderly?'

By the very completeness of the treatment of the Spanish Literature of the period we have been deterred from giving any analysis of the history.

The last chapter attempts to supply, in some sort, the deficiency we noticed at the very outset.

Among the striking notes of the Renaissance are given 'a love of beauty, a sense of joy, a vehement longing for strong expression of individual character and of passion, a delight in the exercise of a bold, inquisitive intellect—all these, and the reaction from them, which is a deep melancholy.' The Spanish genius, always indifferent to the love of beauty, and with little faculty for perfection of form, was little influenced by the Renaissance. Not so the English, which absorbed the new influence without losing its individuality With the well-known amenability to literary discipline of the French genius, the Renaissance naturally enough dominated the French Literature, though not to the suppression of its essentially French character. Italy was the very child of the Renaissance, and it was from there the new impulse spread to other literatures.

We have thus attempted to give our readers some idea of the work of Mr. David Hannay. And we can sincerely recommend it as a reliable guide in the study of the leading European literatures of the Later Renaissance.

LITERARY NOTES.

Speaking of Mrs. Oliphant's 'Life of Edward Irving,' a writer in *Blackwood's Magazine* says: 'A life of Edward Irving written in a bold, matter of fact, prosaic manner would not only have been artistically out of keeping, but would have done the man less than justice. Mrs. Oliphant, with instinctive soundness of judgment, has pitched her work in precisely the proper key'. Comparing Edward Irving and Laurence Oliphant the writer proceeds as follows: "Both nourished lofty ideals; both were sickened by the glaring discrepancy between Christian theory and practice; both were unfavourably impressed by the self-righteousness and the censoriousness of the ultra evangelicals; both were led to embrace views utterly incomprehensible to the majority of their fellow-men."

* * *

Miss Gertrude Atherton's 'American Wives and English Husbands' is said to show greater power than her earlier 'Patience Sparhawk' which is noticed in the article on American Novels in the April number of the *Edinburgh Review.*

* * *

'Democracy; an American Novel' receives also high praise in the same article. Its readers can see that the praise is not higher than deserved. Without any pedantic discussion and with the lightest of touches, the author exposes the seamy side of American politics and the book has the further merit of being carefully written as regards style. The late R. H. Hutton, as the readers of his 'Contemporary Thought and Thinkers' will remember, had a high opinion of the merits of the book.

* * *

We learn that George Brandes's Shakspeare was originally delivered as a series of lectures at the Copenhagen University. It had universal success in Scandinavia and bids fair to become very popular in England. Prof. Dowden says of it that English scholars can give the warmest welcome to a book of great value presented in an excellent translation.

Anthony Hope is expected to bring out, next autumn in England, 'Rupert of Hentzau,' the long-expected sequel to the very popular novel 'Prisoner of Zenda.' Rudolf Rassendall, has, it will be remembered, a long score to clear with Rupert at the end of the novel and the writer leaves us to expect he will take us to 'fresh field and pastures new' in the thrilling realms of romance.

* * *

Miss Bentham Edwards' volume of Reminiscences is said to contain many chapters relating to George Eliot.

* * *

That very versatile writer Grant Allen has recently written a Guide-book useful to Americans visiting Europe.

* * *

Some of the greatest writers whose amazing productivity is a matter of wonder to us appear to have considered themselves very indolent. Alfieri disliked writing so much that he found it necessary to tie himself to a table. Rousseau could dictate only from bed. Goethe could work only in the morning. Darwin could work only one hour with vigour, *i.e.*, between 8 and 9 in the morning. The gigantic work of Balzac was accomplished by a man who liked everything but work. Zola is said to like nothing so much as the time when he might give himself up to do nothing. He *is* able to work only three hours daily.

* * *

The secret of the work actually turned out by these men lies in this: that they did turn out *some work every day*, though they perhaps did not turn out as much work as they would have liked to. Something *attempted*, something *done*, should earn us all our night's repose.

* * *

Emile Faguet in *The Fortnightly Review* says that there were four Balzacs. No. 1 was a realist and had a marvellous power of creating living, human beings. Balzac No. 2 was a demographer and describes faithfully particular phases of French society. The important part played by money and intrigue in French society is duly emphasised in the novels. The third Balzac is a French classic. The tendency of all French writers is to simplify the portrayal of characters *i.e.*, to present 'humours' rather than men. Each of the characters of the novelist is so swayed by some peculiar quality

> that it doth draw
> All his affects, his spirits, and his powers
> In their confluxions all to run one way.

Balzac No. 4 is Romanesque. There is a good deal of Arabian Nights in the novelist. But Scheharazade's tales form the dream of an

indolent people who would fain find diamonds without so much as moving their little fingers, whereas Balzac's dreams are of an energetic who want colossal fortunes made after short colossal efforts.

* * *

"Saint-Lieu" [a French teacher settled in London in the Elizabethan times] says M. Jusserand in the April number of *The Nineteenth Century*, "sold his grammar by the hundred and resorted to other means in order to fill his schools. He inserted in his books familiar dialogues on himself in which he gave his address and his terms and disparaged other teachers of whom so many alas are 'fort negligens et paresseux,' quite the reverse of one whom intelligent people give as master to their boys; "Jan! Comment s'appelle ton maistre? Il s'appele M. Claude de Sain-Lieu."

* * *

The only article of much literary interest in the May number of *The Nineteenth Century* is Mr. H. W. Hoare's paper on the 'English Bible.' Wycliffe, Tyndale and Miles Coverdale get their due meed of praise. The racy vernacular basis we owe to Wycliffe. Tyndale contributed to the book the character of majesty and preternatural grandeur. Miles Coverdale had a delicate ear for cadence and rhythm. And the music which seems to well out of particular passages is his contribution to the full perfection of the work. We may mention that Macmillan and Co. are bringing out an eight volume edition of the Bible in the Eversley series. We hope that every college library will get a copy of the book as soon as may be. Forty shillings is not too much to spend on a work which has been justly pronounced to be 'unique among books in its unapproachable grandeur' and holding 'an undisputed pre-eminence as the most splendid literary monument that we possess of the genius of our native tongue.'

* * *

Mr. Stephen Gwynn gave a critical estimate of the posthumous writings of Robert Louis Stevenson in the April number of *The Fortnightly*. He did not lament with Edmund Gosse the loss of the essayist in the novelist. He was able to trace a closer and closer approach to perfect workmanship in the successive writings published by the novelist. The last fragment, Weir of Hermiston, shows how much we have lost in the death of Stevenson.

* * *

In *Macmillan's Magazine* for May the same writer gives a sketch of the life of Anthony Hamilton—the author of the most entertaining book of memoirs of Count de Grammont, the popularity of which can only be rivalled by Boswell's Life of Johnson.

The recently published historical novel of Anthony Hope—Simon Dale—deals with the period of the Memoirs.

* * *

Referring to a new edition of George Meredith's 'Essay on the Comedy and the Uses of the Comic Spirit,' a writer remarks "It is probably the best essay on the subject ever written, and so full of suggestion is it that even those who imagine they know all about the comic spirit may read it with profit." Meredith has high praise for Congreve's fine and natural style of dialogue, a good word for Fielding, Goldsmith and Jane Austen.

* * *

M. F. Brunetière is no believer in Art for Art's sake. In his 'L'Art et la Morale' he shows how art, whether poetry, music or painting, seeking no rule but itself, soon degenerates into a combination of artifices to excite sensuality. Among English writers quoted or referred to are Samuel Richardson, John A. Symonds, M. A. J. Balfour and Mr. Ruskin.

* * *

As Thackeray's wishes that no biography of him should be published have been so far respected, all the greater interest attaches to the publication by Mrs. Ritchie of memories which concern her father's books. In the Introduction to 'Vanity Fair' just brought out by Smith Elder and Co., Mrs. Ritchie gives an interesting sketch of Thackeray as a schoolboy.

* * *

The new edition of 'modern painters' recently completed seems to have been in demand. The demand for other books of Ruskin appears to be steady.

* * *

A cheap edition of Reade's masterpiece 'The Cloister and the Hearth' has been brought out for 6*s*.

* * *

A new edition of Sir George Cornewall Lewis's 'Remarks on the Use and Abuse of some Political Terms' is to be shortly published with Introduction and Notes by Mr. Thomas Raliegh of All Souls.

* * *

The war between the United States and Spain is causing a brisk demand for Captain's Mahan's works.

* * *

Mr. Andrew Clark has brought out, at the Clarendon Press, a splendid edition of the most entertaining and gossipy memoirs of John Aubrey's contemporaries. 'Brief Lives' set by John Aubrey.

* * *

In the last number of the *Political Science Quarterly* is a long article by Professor W. Hasbach, of Kiel University, on Adam Smith's Lectures.

The conclusion that the Professor arrives at is that the Physiocrats have played a far more important rôle in the development of Adam Smith than we have hitherto dared to assume. 'Had Smith been able to develop further on the lines of that training which is manifested in the *Lectures*, his economic system would probably not have attained its completeness, but he would have preserved the objectivity of his historical judgment and the purity of his economic perception. The blemishes of which the historical school and Jevons have complained are almost entirely absent in the *Lectures*.'

* * *

Some one maintained that everybody had written a tragedy. "Yes," said Lewes, "Every one, even Herbert Spencer." "Ah," interposed Huxley, "I knew what the catastrophe would be—an induction killed by a fact."

* * *

Mr. Herbert Spencer, we learn, is engaged just now in bringing out a new edition of his 'Principles of Biology.'

* * *

Motley was not able to find a publisher for his History of the Dutch Republic. Murray kept the manuscript for a fortnight, but decided against it, and Motley was obliged to issue the book at his own expense, his father furnishing the money.

* * *

Mr. Phil Robinson writes entertainingly of 'Dogs in Fiction' in the *Contemporary Review* (May), Cerby in Disraeli's 'Infernal Marriage,' Bill Sykes's Bullseye, Snarleyvow of Marryat, the immortal Crab which brought Launce into so many scrapes, Scott's Rosival, Bran in Hypatia, are all noticed.

* * *

Serious readers will read with interest Professor A. Seth Pringle Pattison's article on Friedrich Nietzsche in the same Review. The relation of Neitzsche to Schopenhauer is clearly pointed out.

* * *

M. Jusserand mentions a curious anecdote about Ben Jonson. On a visit to Paris, young Raleigh (son of the more famous Raleigh) plied Ben with cups which cheered and *did* inebriate and had him placed on a car and drawn round the streets of the city.

* * *

The Comparative Literature Society [Carnegie Hall, N. Y.] wants to deepen the understanding of what has been already established in literature, and stimulate to higher literary production. This is to be attained by a comparative study of all the great literatures, in outline, in different races and periods,

On 19th May died Mr. W. E. Gladstone. What a loss to the world of politics and letters and humanity.

* * *

The late Mr. Gladstone's system of marking a book that he read was rather elaborate. The upright cross, the line down the side, they were all different degrees of N.B.; and when he wished to qualify the text, the Italian word 'ma' (but) was written on the margin. A St. Andrew's Cross (×) or a wavering line expressed disapproval or disagreement. At the end of the book a list of pages was always to be found of what had most struck him in the volume. He was also particular in the order and variation of his reading. At one time the three books he had on hand were Dr. Langen's Roman History (in German) for morning reading, Virgil for the afternoon and in the evening a novel.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES.

Teachers' Contracts—Professional Honor and Courtesy.

Many schools are injured and many school officers are caused much inconvenience because their teachers resign without giving sufficiently long notice of their intentions. Some teachers seem to have very indistinct notions of the morally binding force of their contracts. In one state (New York), and probably in several others, any teachers who wilfully abandons his contract is liable to have his license annulled.

On the other hand, teachers are sometimes dismissed without a fair trial or due notice.

There is much need that the educational public should be better informed about four things: First, the bad results to schools of too frequent changes in teachers; second, the bad effects on teachers of too frequent changes of places; third, the moral obligations of contracts; and fourth, the courtesy due to and from school officers and teachers.

At a late meeting of the Massachusetts Superintendents' Association, a committee appointed for the purpose brought in the following report, which was accepted and adopted :—

"It is our judgment that no attempt should be made by superintendents or those in charge of school affairs to induce teachers to leave their positions immediately before the beginning of the fall term, or during the first and last months of the school year; that no attempt should be made to induce teachers to leave their positions except after notice of four weeks that no

teacher should be considered an available candidate for a new position until he shall have served at least one year in his present position, unless he has made it a condition of acceptance that he may leave at any time after giving proper notice; that teachers should be mindful of the interest of the schools in which they teach, and should be unwilling to leave their positions unless released by those who have employed them: that teachers should be unwilling to leave positions wherein they have not served at least one year, unless they have made it a condition of acceptance that they may leave at any time after proper notice; that it is the duty of school authorities, after notice of four weeks, to release teachers who can materially better themselves, unless there are unusual circumstances making such a change exceptionally injurious to the schools; that we deprecate any contract with teachers which is made mainly for the benefit of district, town, or city, whereby school authorities seek to obligate teachers to a greater degree than they obligate themselves."

If teachers, school superintendents, school boards, and teachers' agencies would all carry out the foregoing ideas, there would be a great gain. Let us each not only follow them ourselves, but also disseminate them as much as possible among others:—BURT JAY TICE. Superintendent of Schools, Sand which, Mass.

Journal of Education (*Boston and Chicago*).

* * *

A French medical man says (*Fortnightly*—May) that one condition of intellectual peace is to regulate the 24 hours as the monks do. He would have earnest workers impose a strict alimentary regimen which will suppress somnolency after food. In addition to the above there should be regularity in sleep. Tonics may also be occasionally useful. These rules will secure for the intellectual worker as efficient a condition of the body as possible. 'In order to ensure the very least amount of nervous expenditure and fatigue, intellectual production ought to be daily at a fixed hour and in the morning'.

* * *

"The Irish acquiesce apathetically in their conditions of life, because the effort of doing any thing else is too much," remark the writers on *Education in Ireland* in the April number of the *Contemporary Review*. "They are content to drift. Whatever working capacity exists is allowed to run utterly to waste without let or hindrance, because no opportunities for development are found." Often the highest ambition of the Irish lad is to become a constable or get into a brewery or to start a co-operative dairy. He is unable to pass the standards for the two first and the third is a rainbow vision.

Practical agricultural teaching seems not to have had great success. Manual Instruction introduced in 15 schools in 1894-1895 has not been thriving. The attendance in schools is very lax. Incorrigible truancy

seems to be one of the most discouraging feature of the Irish system of education. The mass of the people are illiterate and look upon education as so much time wasted out of deference to the prejudice of the upper classes. The commonest pleas for absence from school are distance and weather, which do not seem to stand in the way of the Irish boy's business or pleasure. Boys are often called away for harvesting and potato laying. What a contrast in every respect to the Scotch lad who is so keen on learning. "To those accustomed to the quick responsiveness of Scottish scholars, the tongue-tied stolidity of these quick-witted Irish children is simply amazing. They make no pretence of answering the questions put to them."

The writers have, however, high praise for the work that is being done by the National convent schools at Avoca, the Reformatory school of Glencree and the Industrial school of Artane.

* * *

A University scholarship is to be founded in honour of Charlotte M. Yonge the Novelist. The Princess of Wales and the Archbishop of Canterbury are among the leaders of the movement. The particular University has not been decided upon. Mrs. Alice Freeman Palmer of Cambridge, Mass., has consented to take charge of contributions from America.

* * *

Mark Pattison was Rector of Lincoln College from 1861 to 1884. There are many anecdotes of the Rector in Rev. A. Clark's 'Lincoln College': Pattison disliked the ordinary undergraduate and tried to fill the College with genuine students. One of his sayings, if a class list appeared with no Lincoln first, was, 'What's the College coming to? Another class list and no first from Lincoln?' If a Lincoln name was in the position of honour, he would say, 'What's the University coming to? Why, there's so and so has got a first!' Mr. Clark says, 'I have heard, and credit, a tale of one scholar of the College who had done himself and the College honour in the class-lists and won laurels on the river. When, at the end of his years of residence, he called to say good-bye, the Rector asked his name, paused over it, and said: "Oh yes, Mr.——, I suppose you have come to matriculate." Pattison tried to help the College tradition of knowing and being friends with all Lincoln men by the kindly old method of asking men to join him in his afternoon walk. When the invitation came the freshmen's trepidation was usually great. On one occasion a timid undergraduate waited at the 'Lodgings' at the appointed hour, followed the Rector across the quadrangle, and then when the two had stepped out through the wicket, essayed a literary opening to the conversation, by volunteering 'The irony of Sophocles

is greater than the irony of Euripides.' Pattison seemed lost in thought over the statement and made no answer till the two turned at Iffley to come back. Then he said, 'Quote.' Quotations not being forthcoming, the returning and the parting took place in silence.

* * *

The writer of the article on 'Pupil Teachers,' which appears in the April number of *The Educational Review*, seems to be no admirer of the Pupil Teacher system. Pupil teaching is, in his opinion, a mere parody of education. Judgment and experience are against it. Only commercial expediency has a word to say in its favour. It may be good for the pupil teacher but bad for the pupil taught. Whether is greater, asks the writer, the training of the teacher *coûte que coûte*, or the welfare of the pupils whom his training is intended ultimately to benefit. Experiments at the expense of the boys are not justifiable. "The committing of the training of the immature to the hands of the immature is both pedagogically and commercially unsound. The continuance of the progress is therefore hurtful to the national progress. No consideration of timid expediency or selfish finance should cause the powers of Government to refrain from forcing the ratepayer to do at once what must be done ultimately for his own good—abolish the pupil teacher system."

* * *

The *American Primary Teacher* of April has an interesting article on 'What shall the Teacher Study?' The answer to query is: The teachers must study, 1. The living child, sympathetically interpreted; 2. The Race child to be studied in the history of science, art and literature; 3. Historic and present methods of education; 4. The trend of civilisation.

* * *

We take the following from *The School Journal* (New York and Chicago): "The Superintendent of a city was asked to name five superior teachers, another city being in search of several. He knew those who had staying power were needed, not those who were merely in possession of showy methods. He thought over school by school and gave the names, saying: 'Those are solid through and through, they make it a business to learn year by year'; one was a student of German, another of architecture, another of history, and so on. They were not students because they hoped to be selected for other places; in this case nearly all declined the higher salaries. They were students for conscience' sake; to be perfunctory teachers, doing the high duty of enlightening others for a few petty dollars they felt to be unworthy of themselves; and finally, they were happiest thus." Lucky schools!

The law for compulsory attendance in Switzerland is peculiar, though it seems to work well. If a child does not come to school on a particular day, the parent gets a notice from a public authority that he is fined so many francs; the second day the amount is increased; and by the third day, the amount has become a serious one. As a result, there is very little absence from school, though the distances are often several miles. In case of sickness, the pupil is excused; but if there is any suspicion of shamming, a doctor is sent. If the suspicion is found to be well founded, the parent is required to pay the cost of the doctor's visit.

* * *

Big Universities.

The eight largest universities in the world are in Europe. They rank as follows: Paris, Berlin, Vienna, Madrid, Naples, Moscow, Budapest, and Munich. Harvard, the largest American university, ranks ninth, having risen from the tenth place during the last year.

* * *

The writer on 'Commercial Education' in the April number of *Macmillan's Magazine* says that absence of progress in this particular kind of education is due mainly to the system of recruitment of boys and young men for commercial profession. Without interest it is not possible for the ablest youth to secure employment in any of the well-known houses. Those destined for commerce find that high education does not pay and when boys they learn to shirk and scamp work. Men of business in seeking for a particular kind of education which might be helpful for commerce are seeking what is as hard to find as the Philosopher's Stone. The subjects learned at school may be useful: (1) because they help to get money; (2) because they serve as accomplishments; (3) because they serve as moral discipline; and (4) because they serve as intellectual gymnastics. The first is unworthy to aim at in the initial stages of education, the second is common to all kinds of education and to all subjects, and thus we are limited only to the last two uses of moral discipline and intellectual exercise. The best thing boys can learn at school is that they must get into the habit of learning that of which they cannot see the use. The school is the place where habits of business ought to be, can be, and are learned. If high educational qualifications are insisted on in mercantile firms, boys will get to like work, instead of shirking work as they do now.

* * *

In answer to a question of Sir. W. Wedderburn's as to how the natives of India were affected by the reorganization scheme of the Educational Service, Lord George Hamilton replied: "As I said on March 3,

the effect of the new scheme upon the Indian Educational Service has been to transfer to the Provincial Service certain high appointments hitherto filled by nomination in this country, thus practically reserving them for natives of India. As regards the appointments reserved for persons selected in this country (who may be natives of India) I regret I cannot give a complete list." In the Secretary of State's opinion the new scheme gives Indians better prospects than the old.

* * *

The private library of Dr. Reinhold Rost, Librarian to the India Office, has been acquired by the Government of the Straits Settlements for the Raffles' Library and Museum at Singapore.

* * *

A protest has gone forth from the Presbyterian Society for the Promotion of Higher Knowledge in Ireland against the Roman Catholic University Scheme.

* * *

Two exhibition scholarships of £50 and £30 at Trinity College, Cambridge, have been offered to the candidates for the I. C. S. Examination to be held in August next. The first scholarship is open to Trinity men who will be among the first twenty-five of the successful candidates. The second is open to the Trinity College students who are not lower than the 45th.

* * *

The resignation has been announced of Mr. Charles Eliot Norton, who for upward of twenty-five years has held the chair of the Fine Arts at Harvard. The optional subjects are generally chosen for the sake of the interest the candidates take in them. *The Fine Arts* was chosen for the sake of Professor Norton. His teaching was in harmony with the teaching of his friends—Carlyle and Ruskin. Modern art in the Professor's opinion is out of right relation to life, exhibiting no triumphs except those of technical skill. Culture is the beginning of the æsthetic reorganization of society, and therefore the duty of every citizen.

* * *

The effort to make teaching interesting, which is a great characteristic of modern times, does not really lighten the burden on the child. It makes learning easier, but it makes him learn more; it keeps him always at it, and it steals from him those moments of torpor and stupidity, of dreams and vacancy, in which his little brain used to take furtive snatches of repose;—Dr. Kemsies.

* * *

Professor E. C. Branson says that getting ready to teach Geography is a lifetime work, and furnishes the common school teacher opportunity for the most liberal self-culture. And yet that is the subject which is most perfunctorily taught.

The contempt the slave-owing Athenian had for manual labour is fortunately a thing of the past. But till recently men have had a lurking feeling that manual skill is something degrading and not to be proud of. But a fuller knowledge of physiological psychology restores to the muscle its high grade in the scale of sensibility: as Superintendent Carroll * says ' The intellect is at least half flesh and blood, and manual dexterity implies an equal proportion of pure intellect.' 'Any reasonably complete brain development implies that the motor areas have been extensively brought into use. That means that the finer muscles of the body are cultivated or, in other words, that we learn to do many things with our hands.'

* * *

Poverty has its advantages. Poor students with brains and pluck will feel encouraged when they read the following: " More young men by aid of straitened circumstances, have gained positions of power and influence, than by the aid of wealth. Brains, health, enthusiasm and determination are the only essentials of success. The struggle necessary to overcome the obstructions in the way of the young man dependent upon his own exertions for means to pay his way through a course of study, often proves the best part of his education. He thus learns the value of time and money, cultivates habits of industry, economy and self-reliance, escapes the temptations of idleness and dissipation, and gains physical and moral strength which help to build the character of a vigorous manhood." The college career of the poor student may not be as brilliant as that of the favoured son of fortune, but the stern discipline of early years will stand him in good stead later on and may enable the poor youth to outstrip in the race of life many who might have started with greater advantages.

* * *

We recommend to the earnest attention of teachers Mr. Wm. Shearer's article on 'Grading of Schools' (*Education*, April). The most prominent of the characteristics of the plan advocated are these: 1. " In place of basing the promotion of pupils in whole or in part on a promotion examination, it is determined by the teacher's careful estimate of the pupil's ability to do advanced work. A premium is put upon the character of the work done day by day rather than upon the amounting of stuffing which can be done in preparation for the examination." 2. " Pupils are promoted to advanced work whenever ready for it, instead of being promoted at a time arbitrarily determined." 3. " Instead of having pupils roughly herded into large, loosely graded

* *Education*—April: Boston.

classes, in which of necessity the classification must grow more and more unsatisfactory as time passes, those of nearly equal ability are placed together in a room."

* * *

Commercial education cannot be promoted by uniform paper examinations or by separate grants. It can be promoted only by an organized system of instruction as obtaining in the Continent. *Education* (London) (April, 9, 1898), emphasises the necessity for *clearly defined courses of instruction.* 'The School or College of Commerce', it says, 'will need to conduct its students through such courses if it is to be of any real service to the community; but even so, it can make little progress unless such students have already spent their boyhood in a course of Modern Secondary school instruction equally well defined and adapted to achieve the ends at once of liberal culture and of equipment for commercial life.'

* * *

President Draper of the University of Illinois having declined the offer, Dr. William H. Maxwell has been elected the First Superintendent of Greater New York. In this character he will have to administer a public school system which comprises over 8,000 teachers and nearly 400,000 pupils.

* * *

It will be remembered that at the last Educational Conference held in Madras, Professor Sathianadhan read a paper on "Compulsory Education." The paper evoked considerable discussion at the time. The paper on "How Compulsory Education Fails," published in the April number of the *Educational Review*, London, and reprinted elsewhere, will be read with interest and will repay careful perusal.

* * *

Attention.

Education (New York) gives the following brief hints.

To secure and hold attention, teach :—

1. Objectively. Let there be something to see, hear, or feel.
2. Have pupils' eyes on your face or on the object you are using.
3. Few new ideas in any given exercise. Don't scatter.
4. Speak in low tones. Seldom repeat questions.
5. Ask questions first; then name pupil.
6. Ask questions promptly, and require prompt answers.
7. So study subject and ask questions as to arouse curiosity.
8. Surprise the inattentive pupil with an unexpected question.
9. Abolish routine questioning.
10. Vary your methods.
11. Attention uses up brain cells. Exercises brief.

12. Be interested yourself.
13. Make your own questions.
14. Ask questions that are worth the time to answer.

* * *

At a Convocation of Oxford University held on the 21st May the following decree was considered:—"Whereas Mr. Henry Wilde, F.R.S., Past President of the Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society, has offered to the University the sum of £10,000 to institute a Readership of Mental Philosophy, and a further sum of £3,000 to establish a Scholarship, to be the called the John Locke Scholarship, for Mental Philosophy, the University accepts the offer, approves of the regulations, and records its gratitude for Mr. Wilde's munificence."

INDIAN NEWS.

BENGAL.

'Who is Mr. Kulper?' asks *Indian Engineering*. 'The individual with this appellative seems to have played an important part in the Calcutta University in connection with the Senate discussion on 'science, degrees', but although the name has gone the round of the press, we doubt if it will be found in the list of Fellows.'

* * *

The Northbrook School, Dhurbhangah, needs a Headmaster. A correspondent to the *Behar Times* complains that a Bengali M. A. that may be got for the place may not be equal to the task of explaining in Hindustani the English passages.

BOMBAY.

Mr. E. B. Raikes, Bar.-at-Law is to act as Principal and Professor of Law, Government Law School, Bombay, during the absence of Mr. L. J. Robertson. Mr. M. R. Jardine, Bar.-at-Law, will act for L. P. Russell, Perry Professor of Jurisprudence, who has taken 6 months' leave.

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Mr. N. C. Kelkar, B.A., LL.B. proposes to open the Poona Law Class early in June.

* * *

Mr. Shankar Balakristna Dixit was a passionate and devoted student of astronomy and was the author of some very learned works on Indian astronomy. He died a teacher in the Training College, Poona.

N.-W. PROVINCES.

Seven Mahomedan girls have passed the M. A. V. examination for girls from the Municipal Aided Girls' Schools, Lucknow.

THE PUNJAB.

The Syndicate of the Punjab University have resolved to confer on Sir Charles Arthur Roe, the late Vice-Chancellor, the Doctorate of Laws *honoris causa* and *in absentia*.

* * *

We may congratulate the Aitchison Chiefs' College, Lahore, on its recent success in the matter of examinations. The College sent up three candidates for the Entrance examination of the Punjab University and all the three passed. The names of the three deserve chronicling. They are Rao Baldeo Singh, Missar Damodar Dass, Syed Mahammad Hussain, the last being placed in the First Division. Of the six candidates that appeared for the Middle School examination there was only one that failed to pass the examination.

MADRAS.

A. V. Technical Institute, Trichinopoly, has passed 7 in Freehand Drawing, 4 of these in the first class.

* * *

We are sorry to learn that Mr. B. R. Rajam Ayar, the talented author of 'Kamalambal,' died on the 12th of the last month.

* * *

Nobody need be told of the high educational value of Art Galleries. We are glad to learn that an Art Gallery is to be formed under the auspices of the enlightened Maharajah of Travancore. Under the fostering care of Mr. Ravi Varma, we expect the projected Art Gallery to turn out one of the best of the kind.

* * *

The Committee of Management of the G. V. Jugga Row Observatory at Vizagapatam consists of 1. The Collector of Vizagapatam; 2. The Meteorological Reporter to the Government of India; 3. The Government Astronomer of Madras; 4. The Meteorological Reporter to the Government of Bengal; 5. The Second Asst. Meteorological Reporter to the Government of India and two other persons to be appointed by the Government of India. There is a prospect of the unseemly wrangle over this 'endowment' being amicably terminated.

We learn that Article 9 of Chapter II of Madras Educational Rules does not authorize managers of schools to apply to the officers of the Public Works Department for plans and estimates for new buildings.

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The Girls' Seminary, Ootacamund, was inspected the other day by Miss Carr, Inspectress of Girls' Schools, and reported on favourably.

* * * *

The *Madras Mail* takes it as a compliment to the Hindu mercantile community of Madras that Mr. M. A. Singarachariar of the Madras Bank has received the title of Rao Bahadur. We are inclined to suppose that the honour has been conferred on the gentleman in recognition of his very meritorious services to the cause of education as the Manager of the Anglo-Vernacular High School of Triplicane now known as the Hindu High School. It will be within the recollection of our readers that Sir Arthur Havelock recently presided at the opening of the new school-house and that on the occasion Mr. Singarachariar made a munificent gift of a thousand rupees for a school prize.

* * *

We are glad to see that Moulvi Syed Hasa Raza Sahib of the Madras Educational Department has been made a Shams-ul-Ulama.

* * *

A meeting was recently held at Kumbakonam in honour of Pandit Rangachariar having been made a Mahamakspadyaya by the Government in recognition of his sterling services as a Sanskrit Pandit. A grand old Roman,—*Brahmin* we should have said.

* * *

The Rajah's School, at Tirupanitura, in Cochin, now teaches up to the Matriculation Standard, and has been recognized by the Director of Public Instruction as fulfilling the necessary conditions.

NOTIFICATIONS.

BOMBAY.

List of appointments in the Educational Department for the month of May 1898.

7th May 1898.—The following transfers of Drawing Masters are sanctioned from the end of the hot weather vacation; Mr. D. D. Narulwala to be Drawing Master, Ahmedabad High School; Mr. M. K. Parekh to be Drawing Master, Broach High School; Mr. B. K. Carpenter to be Drawing Master, Nariad High School; Mr. A. N. Dubash to be Drawing Master, Surat High School.

9*th May* 1898.—The following appointments are made in the N. J. High School, Karachi; Mr. F. K. Limbuwala, 12th Assistant, to be 11th Assistant; Mr. D. S. Wadvani, 13th Assistant to be 12th Assistant; Mr. D. D. Gamvala, 14th Assistant to be 13th Assistaut; Mr. R. M. Mukhijani, 15th Assistant to be 14th Assistant; Mr. A. H. Mahadevia, Head Master, First Grade Anglo-Vernaculnr School, Camp Deesa, is appointed 4th Assistant Master, Telang High School, Godra, but to continue as Head Master of the Camp School, Deesa; Mr. A. X. Teindade, *sub-pro-tem* Assistant Teacher, Sir J. J. School of Art, is confirmed in his appointment.

16*th May* 1898.—Mr. S. P. Agaskar, *sub-pro-tem* Assistant Master, Sir J. J. School of Art, is confirmed in his appointment.

18*th Mây* 1898.—The following appointments are made in the Narid High School; Mr. J. M. Vyas to be 8th Assistant; Mr. N. D. Mehta to be 9th Assistant; Mr. K. G. Dave to be 10th Assistant; Mr. G. P. Sutaria to be 11th Assistant; Mr. M. O. Koreshi to be 12th Assistant; Mr. D. N. Shah to be 13th Assistant; Mr. G. H. Pandya, P. E., to be 14th Assistant.

20*th May* 1898.—Mr. G. M. Jhote, Head Clerk, Deputy Inspector, Broach, is appointed Head Clerk to the Deputy Inspector, Kaira; Mr. C. V. Pandya 2nd Clerk, Deputy Inspector, Surat, is appointed Head Clerk to the Deputy Inspector, Broach; Mr. D. N. Majmundar, 2nd Clerk, Training College, Ahmedabad, and *sub-pro-tem* 2nd Clerk, Deputy Inspector, Kaira, is appointed 2nd Clerk to the Deputy Inspector, Surat; Mr. C. G. Mehta, 3rd Clerk, Deputy Inspector, Surat, is appointed 2nd Clerk, Training College, Ahmedabad.

23*rd May* 1898.—Mr. V. V. Patwardhan, B.A., 2nd Assistant, Garud High School, Dhulia, is appointed 1st Assistant, Belgam High School, *vice* Mr. R. R. Natu, deceased.

27*th May* 1898.—Mr. Y. B. Bhagwat, is appointed Assistant Veterinary Officer in the Bombay Veterinary College, in place of Mr. T. K. Desai, resigned.

28*th May* 1898.—Mr. Abdullakhan Atar, 2nd Assistant, Deputy Educational Inspector, Belgaum, is appointed 3rd Assistant Master, Poona Camp School; Mr. Mahomed Yasinkhan Gulam Hussainkhan, 3rd Assistant Master, Poona Camp School, is appointed 2nd Assistant, Deputy Inspector, Belgaum, on probation, *vice* Mr. Atar, reduced.

Addresses.—

Rules regarding the receipt of—by Government servants.

GENERAL DEPARTMENT. BOMBAY CASTLE,
No. 2822. 27*th May* 1898.

Memorandum from the Government of India, Home Department, Public, dated the 6th May 1898—

Forwarding, in continuation of their Resolution No. 29—1629-1645, dated the 22nd July 1887, a copy of the following Resolution, No. 729—53 of the

date, regarding the receipt of testimonials and addresses by servants of Government—

"RESOLUTION.

By the rules attached to the Resolution above quoted, all servants of Government are prohibited, subject to stated exceptions, from receiving complimentary or valedictory addresses in any form, or testimonials of any kind, and from attending public meetings or complimentary entertainments of a formal and public character held in their honour. Several instances have recently occurred in which arrangements for the presentation of testimonials have been made and subscriptions collected apparently in ignorance of the fact that the proceedings were irregular and that the Rules prohibit Government officials from receiving testimonials of any kind. It has also happened more than once lately that a formal character has been given to farewell entertainments, such as are permitted by Rule 3, by the publication in the newspapers of speeches made at them. The Governor-General in Council in these circumstances finds it necessary to call the attention of Local Governments and Administrations to the Rules, and to request that it may be again impressed on all officers that they must be strictly observed. With a view to bringing them to the notice of the public, the Governor-General in Council directs that they be republished in *Gazette of India* and the Gazettes of Local Governments and Administrations. The Rules do not apply to the receipt of addresses by the Head of any Government or Administration.

'1. Save as in these Rules otherwise provided, all servants of Government, Covenanted or Uncovenanted, are forbidden to receive complimentary or valedictory addresses in any form; or to accept testimonials of any kind; or to attend public meetings or complimentary entertainments of a formal and public character held in their honour.

'2. The Government views with disfavour all similar manifestations in the case of retired officers, when following immediately upon their retirement from active service, and designed as an acknowledgment of acts done by them while in the service of Government.

'3. It is not intended to prohibit such an expression of regard for the private or official character of an officer retiring from service, or leaving his station or district, as is involved in a farewell entertainment supported by his personal friends, even though some of these may be his official subordinates. But it is expected that the proceedings on such occasions will be substantially of a private and informal character.

'4. Local Governments and Administrations are authorised to forward to an officer who has left a station or district the Resolution of any local public body recording a vote of thanks to him for help and advice afforded during his official connection with the station or district.

'5. Medical officers are not prohibited from receiving pecuniary recognition of their services from a community or body of persons which may desire to acknowledge these, but the previous sanction of the Local Govern-

ment or Administration must be obtained by medical officers before receiving any public complimentary address.

'6. Nothing in the above Rule is meant to prohibit compliance with the request of a public body that a Government officer should sit for his portrait, bust, or statue in recognition of his public services; provided that the portrait, bust, or statue is not intended for presentation to the officer concerned.

'7. The participation of Government officers in the raising of funds for the foundation of scholarships, or for procuring a portrait, bust, or statue as as a spontaneous recognition of the services of a Government officer is not forbidden; but it should be clearly understood that any solicitation on the part of officers of Government for subscriptions from any person who does not voluntarily come forward to contribute is disapproved by the Government of India.

'8. The previous sanction of Government of India must be obtained to the relaxation of these Rules in any special case in which the Local Government or Administration may think this desirable.'"

(a) Government of Madras.
Government of Bombay.
Government of Bengal.
Government of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh.
Government of the Punjab.
Government of Burma.
Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces.
Chief Commissioner of Assam.
Chief Commissioner of Coorg.
Resident at Hyderabad.
(b) Foreign Department.
Financial Department.
Military Department.
Public Works Department.
Legislative Department.
Department of Revenue and Agriculture.
(c) Superintendent of Port Blair.
Director-General of the Indian Medical Service.
Sanitary Commissioner with the Government of India.
Secretary to the Board of Examiners.
Registrar of the Calcutta University.
Bishop's Chaplain.
Registrar, High Court, Calcutta.
Officer in charge of the Records of the Government of India.

ORDER.—Ordered that a copy of this Resolution be forwarded to (a) all Local Governments and Administrations, (b) all Departments of the Government of India, and (c) all Heads of Departments subordinate to the Home Department, and that the Resolution be published in the *Gazette of India* for general information.

RESOLUTION.—Copies of the Resolution of the Government of India should be forwarded to all Departments of the Secretariat and all Heads of Offices under the several Departments for information and guidance in continuation of Government Resolution, No. 2467, dated the 20th August 1887.

2. The Resolution should be published in the *Bombay Government Gazette*.

A. M. T. JACKSON,

Acting Secretary to Government.